Disconfirming managerial communication, its impact on employee felt emotions and the moderating roles of relationship quality, trait negative affect and emotion regulation

Thesis

Disconfirming Managerial Communication, Its Impact on Employee Felt Emotions, and the Moderating Effects of Relationship Quality, Trait Negative Affect and Emotion Regulation

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Human Resources Management in the Faculty of Business of The Open University In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the impacts of disconfirming managerial communication on employee felt emotions, and whether this impact was influenced by the employee's personality, emotion regulation strategies, and the quality of the manager-employee relationship. Two hundred and seventy-five working adults rated the extent to which their managers used disconfirming and confirming communication with them during disagreement discussions. They also rated the positive and negative emotions they experienced as a result of these discussions, their overall relationship quality with their managers, their trait positive and negative affect at work, and the degree to which they regulated their emotions by expressive suppression, and cognitive reappraisal.

Results showed that, as hypothesized, 1) disconfirming managerial communication was positively related to employee negative felt emotion, and 2) the effect was mitigated (during disagreement discussions) by a high relationship quality between the manager and employee. 3) Also, even though disconfirming managerial communication was not found to be a negative predictor of employees' positive felt emotions, during disagreement discussions, *confirming* managerial communication was both a negative predictor of employee negative felt emotions, and a positive predictor of employee positive felt emotions. 4) In addition, during disagreement discussions, while the relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion was stronger for employees with high trait negative affect (NA), the *difference* between the negative emotions associated with high disconfirming and low disconfirming communication was much greater for employees with *low* trait negative affect (NA). Finally, my results did not support my hypothesis that the relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion would be amplified for employees who regulated their emotions using expressive suppression, and mitigated by employees who regulated their emotions using cognitive reappraisal. However, consistent with previous research, expressive suppression correlated

negatively with relationship quality, and positively with trait negative affect, and scores were higher for males. Also, cognitive reappraisal correlated positively with trait positive affect and emotional stability.

These findings contribute to theory and research within the fields of interpersonal communication, leader-member exchange (LMX), and emotions at work. Also, the study introduces a useful tool (the Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator or C/DMCI) for future research in this area, as well as applications in management development and appraisal. Using Affective Events Theory as the framework, previous research is both supported and extended through a more complex understanding of the specific communication behaviours involved in confirming, and disconfirming managerial communication. Findings suggest that in order to be effective, managers need to use more confirming communication behaviours, as well as fewer disconfirming ones. The results emphasize that if managers have good relationships with their employees, when they do communicate in a disconfirming manner, especially if the communication is in a disagreement context, the positive relationship will act as a buffer to the negative emotional impacts that are associated with disconfirmation. Also, the study finds that while employees with high trait negative affect personalities, who tend to be more tense and nervous, will experience more negative felt emotion during disagreements, it is the low trait negative affect employees, those who are calm and relaxed, that will notice disconfirming managerial communication the most.

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1. INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH QUESTION

Emotions at work are significant predictors of organizational outcomes (Elfenbein, 2008) and affective reactions are triggered by job events, such as work stress, workgroup characteristics, organizational rewards and punishments, and certain leader interaction behaviours (Brief & Weiss, 2002). In addition, strong relationships have been found between negative emotions at work, and acts of management (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Mignonac & Herrbach 2004), including managerial communication (Andersen & Guerrero, 1998; Fiebig & Kramer, 1998; Dasborough, 2006; Waldron & Krone, 1991).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As shown in chapter two, a review of the *emotions at work* literature reveals that researchers have viewed managerial communication in terms that are too global, and in addition they have generally failed to take relational contexts, or individual dispositions into account. On the other hand, as shown in Chapter three, *interpersonal communication* researchers have provided micro- descriptions of verbal, and sometimes non-verbal messages (e.g., Gottman & Krokoff, 1989), but have failed to explore the relationships between these messages and emotions (e.g., Dailey, 2005; Fairhurst, 1993). More specifically, the current study makes a significant contribution by bringing together research from the three disparate fields of: a) emotions at work, b) interpersonal communications, and c) leader behaviour (Leader-Member Exchange) as follows:

Using Affective Events Theory (AET) as their theoretical framework (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), a number of scholars have called for more research into the triggers of affective reactions at work (e.g., Dasborough, Ashkanasy, Tee & Yse, 2009; George, 2000; Game, 2008). I will argue, in Chapter two, that disconfirming managerial

communication is a significant trigger of **employee felt emotions**. In addition, in Chapter five, I will answer the call for more research into the possible personality influences on the emotion-generation process (Weiss & Kurek, 2003) by exploring *trait positive* and *negative affect* (e.g., Toegel, Anand & Kilduff, 2007), and *emotion regulation* as possible moderators. I use Gross' (1998a) process model of emotion regulation, and argue that individuals who tend to *cognitively reappraise* (re-frame their experience in a more positive light), will report weaker negative felt emotion in response to disconfirming managerial communication than individuals who tend to regulate through *expressive suppression* (holding in their felt emotions).

In Chapter three, drawing from the field of **interpersonal communications**, I adopt a relational communication perspective (Rogers & Escudero, 2004) defining interpersonal communication as: "The process of creating social relationships between at least two people by acting in concert with one another" (Fisher & Adams, 1994, p. 18). This differs from the traditional view of interpersonal communication, still prominent in the field of organizational behaviour, as a sequence that includes the communication source, the encoder, the message, the channel, the decoder and the communication receiver (i.e., Monge, Backman, Dillard & Eisenberg, 1982; Stead, 1972). By contrast, in the relational communications perspective, managers and their employees communicate in the context of their relationship, and the *quality* of this relationship has to be considered. Building on this relational communications perspective, I use Sieburg's (1976) concept of *disconfirming* and *confirming* communication as a way to operationalize my independent variable and make it less global. A communication is defined as "confirming" when it validates and recognizes the other individual as important, and "disconfirming" when it negates the other person as a valid source of the message, or attacks the other person's self- concept.

To further operationalize and capture the relational communications perspective, I borrow the "Relationship Quality" construct from the **Leader-Member Exchange** (LMX literature). Specifically, in Chapter four, I argue that when an employee perceives a high quality relationship with his or her manager, the negative

emotional impacts of disconfirming managerial communication on him or her will be mitigated. However, when employees perceive the relationship quality with their manager to be low, these negative impacts will be intensified.

The literature review is organized as follows: in **Chapter two,** I explore the various approaches that have been taken to understanding and defining workplace emotions, including *Affective Events Theory*, which takes a componential approach. I highlight the research that has found negative managerial communication to be an emotional trigger for employees, and identify a gap in the literature; namely that the managerial communication behaviour in these studies has been described too globally, without specific description of what was said or how it was said. Therefore, in **Chapter three,** I explore the interpersonal communications literature to better understand the ways in which interpersonal communication has been defined and examined in this separate literature. Based on this analysis, I bring the relational communications perspective together with the workplace emotions perspective as a foundation for my study. Drawing on the relational communications perspective, I select the *confirming-disconfirming* communication construct as the model by which to analyze managerial communication. I provide an overview of this model, and argue that it offers a more productive account of managerial communication, when compared to the other models available in the literature. In **Chapter four,** after a very brief overview of culture, time and place context, I explore two key context areas in depth: First, that of relationship context and second, that of communicative goal context, especially during disagreements. I borrow from Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) research and use the concept of "Relationship Quality" as a means of operationalizing relational communication as a critical context for workplace communication. Then. I explore the context established by the specific communication episode, its function and the goals that the communicators have for the episode. I explore the theory and research pertaining to superordinate goal structures present during interactions and I connect this body of knowledge to the definition of emotions as "relevance detectors". In **Chapter five,** I expand upon a key proposition of Affective Events Theory, that

individual dispositions moderate the relationship between job events, and affective reactions. Specifically, I provide an overview of *trait positive and negative affect*, and *emotion regulation,* my two other hypothesized moderators. In **Chapter six,** I summarize the conclusions that arise from my review of the literature, and I provide a more focused review to support each of my six hypotheses. In **Chapter seven,** I provide an overview of my methodological journey and my changing epistemological assumptions, and then discuss the measurement and emotion elicitation alternatives that I have considered. I also outline the rationale for the choices I made along the way, and describe my final methods choices, including the measures, and the challenges that I have identified throughout the procedure. In **Chapter eight,** I provide an account of my data collection procedures, my sample, how I addressed missing values, my measures, and my analysis approach. **Chapter nine** provides an account of the results of all analyses as well as the post-hoc analysis of the small "No Disagreement" sample I collected. In **Chapter ten** I discuss the implications of the study results, and draw conclusions for theory, future research and management learning and practice. Finally I delineate the novel contribution to knowledge made by this thesis.

1.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on this review of the literature, I have formulated the following research question:

> *"Is disconfirming managerial communication associated with greater employee negative felt emotions, and does the impact depend on: a) the quality of the employee-manager relationship, b) the way the employee regulates emotion, and c) the employee's trait negative affect?"*

2. WORKPLACE EMOTIONS

Negative emotions experienced by employees at work have significant impacts on their behaviour, their physiological and psychological health, and their performance (Lawrence, Toth, Jordan & Collins, 2011). The purpose of this study is to discover more about specific managerial behaviours that trigger employee emotions at work, as well as the various factors that might influence this process. Thus, I am taking the perspective of emotion as an unfolding process or episode, which is only one of a number of different ways that emotion has been understood and studied. The goals of this chapter are to: 1) Compare and contrast this episodic, componential view of emotion with alternate ways in which emotions have been understood and studied; 2) Argue for my use of Affective Events Theory (AET) as a research framework, and propose a working definition of emotion; 3) Clarify the scope of my research within this view of emotion; and 4) Summarize what is already known about managerial communication as an emotional trigger for employees, identifying the gaps in research.

I begin with a review of the generally accepted definitions and distinctions between affect, mood, cognition, and emotion. I expand on the latter by distinguishing between the *primary emotions* and *discrete emotions* perspectives. I then compare and contrast the different approaches to understanding emotion, concentrating on the componential or *process* view of emotion upon which Affective Events Theory (AET) is based. I provide an overview of AET theory and set out an appropriate working definition of workplace emotion. I then set the boundaries and scope of my research within the emotions at work literature and summarize what is already known about managerial behaviour in general (and managerial communication in particular) as an emotional trigger for employees. I conclude with a discussion of what I perceive to be the gaps that my research is trying to fill.

2.1 APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING AND DEFINING WORKPLACE EMOTIONS

The scientific study of emotion has a long and rich history predating the writings of Charles Darwin in the late nineteenth century. It is a topic evident in the work of James and Wundt who were considered "two of psychology's fathers" (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 17). Research into emotion within psychology has continued, and an understanding of the nature of affect and emotions has increased dramatically. Both organizational behaviour researchers (e.g. Lord & Kanfer, 2002) and industrial/organizational psychologists (e.g. Briner & Kiefer, 2005) have produced a great number of articles, special issues and books on the antecedents and consequences of emotions in the workplace. Research on emotions has been more common in psychology than in management, where researchers have been more concerned with the downstream consequences of emotion, than with emotional experiences. Yet Elfenbein (2008) believes that this is starting to change as:

> Researchers now celebrate the infusion of emotion into organizational life with implications for individual, group, and even firm performance, as well as intricate connections to organizational phenomena as varied as justice, diversity, power, creativity, stress, culture and others" (p. 316).

It is surprising, however, that in managerial research "...definitions often fail to include basic distinctions between emotion, cognition, affect and mood" (Gooty, Gavin & Ashkanasy, 2009). To this end, I will now define each construct.

Affect is generally used as an overarching term that encompasses feeling *states*, which are short-term affective experiences, as well as feeling *traits*, which are the more stable personality-driven tendencies to feel and act in certain ways (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Dasborough, Sinclair, Russell-Bennett, & Tombs, 2008). These feeling states have been categorized as either emotions, or moods. Moods take the form of either a generally positive or negative feeling (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), tend to be vague, and lack an object to which the affect is directed (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). While moods "may have a causal antecedent, the phenomenal experience of the mood

does not include the causal factor" (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 18). By contrast, emotions tend to be elicited by a specific target and are directed at someone or something (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Frijda (2007) concludes that most researchers agree that "emotional phenomena are *intentional* and they are *about* something" (p. 437). Emotions tend to be viewed either as discrete emotions (a small set of basics with a number of additional sub-categories), or as combinations of the emotional dimensions of valence/hedonic tone (pleasant to unpleasant) and arousal (activation/energy). Researchers adopt a *dimensions* perspective when they are interested in mood and/or affective personality traits, and when they are interested in the relationships or overlaps between emotions. By contrast, the *discrete emotions* perspective holds that there exists a small set (five to ten) of basic emotion terms such as fear, anger, sadness, joy and love, each with sub-categories and corresponding emotion terms. For example, Fisher (2000) gives an example of the basic emotion 'love' having 3 sub-categories and a total of twenty emotion terms as follows: "affection (containing ten terms), lust (five terms) and longing (one term)" (Fisher, 2000, p. 191). I am taking a dimensional emotions perspective in my exploration of trait negative affectivity (NA) as a moderator, which I expand upon in chapter five. I am taking the discrete emotions perspective for the main effect in my study because I am interested in the degree that specific emotions are triggered by managerial communication. I will now expand on this perspective.

Over the years, scholars have had different views about the components of emotion and whether emotion precedes cognition or vice versa. For example, early scholars such as Schachter and Singer (1962) proposed that an undifferentiated state of physiological arousal was the first response to external stimulus and that this state was followed by a conscious, cognitive process of attribution, which was finally followed by emotion. Scholars such as Zajonc (1984) argued against this, suggesting that emotion can precede cognition while Lazarus (1991) proposed two types of appraisal: the initial cognitive component (primary appraisal) is unconscious and occurs "at the very onset of the emotional episode (after the stimulus) and prior to bodily responses,"

which is then followed by a conscious secondary appraisal or "meaning analysis" (Moors, 2010, p. 13). Building on these earlier theories, current conceptions of emotions are best characterized by the broader concept of the emotional "episode." This is an unfolding process that begins with a stimulus and can include later components or the immediate consequences of the emotion. This componential or process view of emotion has become widespread in that emotion is now viewed as more than an isolated feeling (Moors, 2010). Scherer (2005) defines emotion from this componential perspective and his definition is as follows:

> An episode of interrelated, synchronized changes in the states of all or most of the five organismic subsystems in response to the evaluation of an external or internal stimulus event as relevant to major concerns of the organism. (p. 697)

This definition reflects the following five components that are typically identified in an emotional episode: 1) A cognitive component that appraises the stimulus; 2) a motivational component that consists of states of action readiness for fight or flight; 3) a neurophysiological component that prepares the body and supports action; 4) a motor component that is fight or flight, as well as facial and vocal expression; and 5) the subjective feeling component which is the emotional experience itself (Moors, 2010). Frijda (2007) supports this componential view by explaining that pleasure when eating a good ice cream would not be considered emotion unless, "someone, like me, likes good ice cream so much that eyes begin to twinkle, conversation halts a bit to permit savoring the ice cream, perhaps even the heart beats a bit faster, and the liking and consumption thereby turn into an emotion of enjoyment" (p. 438). While the aforementioned five components are most typically cited in an emotion episode, more recently, Briner & Kiefer (2005) cite research that supports a sixth emotion component that they call the *social* component, caused, in part, by the way we give meaning to events based on the observations of others.

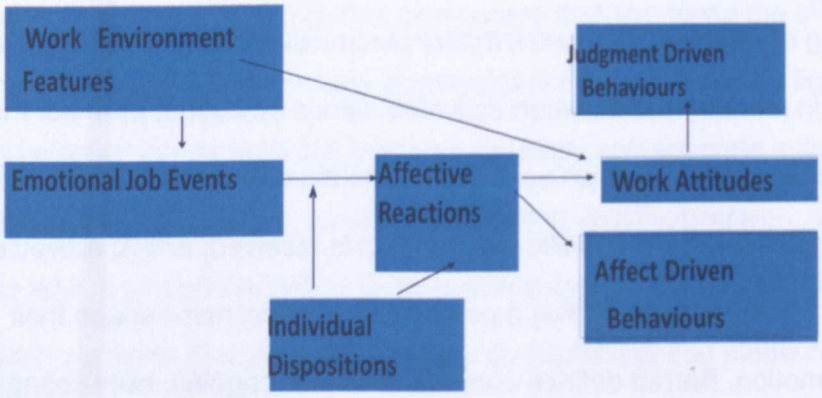
Two other important aspects of the componential view of emotions are the appraisal concepts that consider goal relevance and goal congruence. Scherer (2005)

argues that emotions can be regarded as "relevance detectors," which means that the intensity of the resulting emotion will depend on whether or not the triggering event is appraised as important or relevant (p. 701). This notion of relevance is tied to the distinction between aesthetic and utilitarian emotions. Utilitarian emotions are subject to the appraisal of goal relevance and include those such as anger, fear, joy, disgust, shame and guilt. However, aesthetic emotions, such as being moved and experiencing admiration or harmony, are not shaped by the appraisal of goal relevance. While not included in Scherer's (2005) definition, appraisal theorists often include goal congruence as a second appraisal variable (Moors, 2010), with emotions being triggered when there is a mismatch between "specific classes of constellations of stimuli and goals" (p. 15). Moors (2010) gives the example of a noise in the hall which triggers negative emotion when it is perceived to be incongruent with one's goal for physical safety. She goes on to summarize three additional psychological approaches to understanding emotion: 1) A *network theory* perspective that views emotions as being recorded in memory which, when activated, cause emotions; 2) Affect Program Theory (i.e., Ekman, 2007) in which each basic emotion has evolved a unique neural circuit that is triggered when a specific type of input is received; and 3) Barrett's (2006) Conceptual Act Theory proposing that a person's *core affect* helps shape their experience of emotion. Barrett defines *core affect* as the "ongoing, ever-changing state that is available to be categorized during emotion conceptualization, much like the visible light spectrum is categorized in color perception and physical movements in person perception" (p. 31). In her view, emotion categories are used to endow low specific core affect with specificity (Moors, 2010). This view has come to be called a "psychological construction" approach to understanding emotion (Gross & Barrett, 2011).

Affective Events Theory, also called AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), is a macro framework rooted in the appraisal theory of emotion, and applied to the work context. Consistent with appraisal theory, this model is componential, sequential and requires a stimulus event. Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) developed the model to try to

answer the questions, "What changes have affective significance?" and "How do specific representations of events eventuate in the experience of emotion?" (p. 31). As shown in *Figure 2.1,* their model comprises seven components – the first two components specify features of the work environment and work (emotional job) events. They argue that work environment features such as job characteristics, pay levels and promotion opportunities have less direct influence on affective reactions at work than more proximal work events (or emotional job events) which they define as important happenings and a "change in circumstances a change in what one is currently experiencing" (p. 31).

FIGURE 2.1
Affective Events Theory



Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996

They reiterate (from appraisal theory) the importance of goal relevance and congruence and argue that "the types of goals that are relevant to emotional appraisal go beyond performance goals" (p. 32). They also stress the importance of the person's goal hierarchy as well as goal attention. Since the publication of AET, a number of organizational behaviour and industrial/organizational psychology researchers have

used the framework to explore which work events tend to cause affective reactions, often called emotional job events. These research efforts show that work stress, leader behaviour, workgroup characteristics and organizational rewards and punishments (Brief & Weiss, 2002) are all important emotional triggers. An additional emotional trigger is managerial communication (i.e., Basch & Fisher, 2000), which is the focus of my research and will be discussed in depth in the next section. Managerial communication impacts work autonomy, participation in decision-making (Weiss & Beal, 2005), task interdependence and power distance (Dasborough, Ashkanasy et al, 2009), role conflict, job characteristics (Fisher, 2002), and the relative status of manager and employee (Fitness, 2000). A key element of AET is the distinction between affective reactions at work and job satisfaction. Affective Events Theory proposes that affect and emotions are not synonymous with the commonly measured construct of "job satisfaction" (Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West & Dawson, 2006). Weiss & Kurek (2003) clarify that job satisfaction is "an evaluation of one's job, influenced in part by affective events that have occurred at work" (p. 126). Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus (2002) argue that employees' behaviours at work are probably more affected by the way they feel in the moment than by a "vaguely defined set of attitudes related to how satisfied they feel" (p. 323). Techniques that measure job satisfaction differ from those assessing employees' emotions, and the latter can provide greater insights and more fine-grained explanations than the more widespread and traditional construct of job satisfaction. Emotions at work researchers have explored the types of positive and negative affective reactions that individuals have at work, as well as their frequency and intensity (Glaso & Einarsen, 2006; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Basch & Fisher, 2000; Fiebig, 1998; Waldron & Krone, 1991). The most frequent negative emotions triggered by acts of management are anger, disgust, bitterness, unhappiness, annoyance and disappointment.

As shown in *Figure 2.1,* Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) suggest that emotional job events trigger affective reactions, which mediate both attitudes and behaviours. Attitudes can be formed directly from both work environment features and affective

reactions, while behaviours are either affect-driven or judgment-driven. Brief and Weiss (2002) emphasize that affect-driven behaviours are more immediately experienced, while judgment-driven behaviours are influenced by appraisals and evaluative judgments. One proposition in AET that is central to my study, states that affective reactions are moderated by individual dispositions. I will touch on this proposition now, and also discuss it in more depth in chapter five. These dispositional elements enhance traditional cognitive appraisal theories and are similar to Barrett's (2006) aforementioned conceptual act theory. In addition, dispositional moderators have been suggested as part of the AET framework in a number of studies. Examples include the ability to label discrete emotions (Barrett, Tugade, & Engle, 2004); self-esteem (Vangelisti, Young, Carpenter-Theune, & Alexander, 2005); emotional stability (John & Gross, 2007), cultural values (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007); face threat sensitivity (Tynan, 2005); positive affectivity (Toegel, et al 2007; Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003); habitual emotion regulation strategies (Gross & John, 2003); growth need strength (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000); and emotional intelligence (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Ascough, 2007).

In summary, my study explores the first two stages of the Affective Events Theory (*Figure 2.1*) with managerial communication as the emotional job event (my independent variable) negative and positive felt emotion as the affective reactions (my dependent variable) and the individual dispositions of emotion regulation and trait negative affect as moderators. I also hypothesize a contextual moderator (relationship quality) which is not proposed by Affective Events Theory AET). I follow the AET Framework for my study rather than the broader appraisal theory of Scherer (2005) because, as Frijda (2007) points out, I am not interested in a full explanation of the "mental processes and process systems underlying the phenomenon" (p. 435). Rather, I am more interested in the level of surface phenomena which determine the behaviours and feelings that unfold, as well as any influences on them. Also, my focus is specific to emotions that are elicited at work, even though these will clearly be influenced to some degree by stimuli outside of work. Consequently, I borrow from

Scherer (2005) and Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) in my working definition of workplace emotions, as follows:

> *Workplace emotions are elicited by goal-relevant work events that trigger mental and physical processes that lead to affective reactions.*

2.2 SCOPE WITHIN THE STUDY OF EMOTIONS AT WORK

Interest in emotions within the disciplines of organizational behaviour, and industrial/organizational psychology began to flourish in the early nineties with Mumby and Putnam's (1992) critique of cognitive theories of human behaviour. The criticism revolved around the failure of these fields to take into account the importance of emotions at work. Mumby and Putnam (1992) introduced the term "bounded emotionality" after which Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) argued that "The experience of work is saturated with feeling" (p. 98). They put forth a call for more research into emotions at work and this request stimulated a large outpouring of studies and papers in areas such as emotional labour, emotional contagion, emotional intelligence and discrete emotions (Ashkanasy, et al 2002; Fisher, 2000).

Miller, Considine & Garner (2007) summarized the large scope of research into emotions at work by identifying the following five broad categories: 1) Emotional labour, which they describe as *inauthentic* emotion in interaction with customers and clients; 2) Emotional work, which is *authentic* emotion in interaction customers and clients; 3) Emotion *toward* work, which are emotions in which work is the target of the feeling; 4) Emotion *at* work, which are emotions from non-work sources that are nonetheless experienced in the work-place; and 5) emotion *with* work, which means emotion stemming from interaction with coworkers, supervisors and others. My research aligns with the fifth category, as I am interested in emotion with work, specifically stemming from interaction with one's boss.

A second distinction within the emotions at work research is whether their concern is in emotional expressiveness or in felt emotion. Emotional expressiveness is termed the motor component (or action tendencies) in appraisal theory, which is the

fight or flight response as well as a person's facial, vocal, and bodily expression (Scherer, 2005). By contrast, felt emotion is the feeling or emotional experience which can be understood either as the phenomenal part of the mental processes involved in an emotional episode, or as both phenomenal and intentional (Moors, 2010). Again, my interest is in the experience of felt emotion rather than its expression.

While my study explores both positive and negative felt emotion triggered by managerial communication, it is mainly concerned with the experience of negative emotion resulting from interactions with one's boss. This focus is justified by substantial findings regarding an *asymmetry* in the experience of positive versus negative emotions at work. These studies show that negative emotions are stronger determinants of employee perceptions of their managers and their mood at work than positive emotions. For example, in an in-depth study of traders, negative experiences tended to be more easily recalled than positive ones (Fenton O'Creevy, Nicholson, Soane & Willman, 2005). Similarly, other research shows that when asked to recall positive and negative emotions at work, the negative emotions recalled were significantly more intense than the positive ones (Dasborough, 2006; Fiebig & Kramer, 1998; Waldron & Krone, 1991). Finally, Miner, Glomb & Hulin (2005) found that negative events at work had *five times* more influence on an individual's mood than positive events.

2.3 NEGATIVE ACTS OF MANAGEMENT AND MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION AS EMOTIONAL JOB EVENTS

As discussed in the overview of emotion theories, one of the important questions asked by emotions at work researchers is: "What types of work events elicit affective reactions?" Pertinent to my research is the general consensus that; "The primary antecedent of many, perhaps most, emotional experiences is interpersonal interaction" (Andersen & Guerrero, 1998, p. 57). However, even though there is a great deal of research that has focused on negative acts of management, many of the constructs that capture "nonphysical, supervisor hostility" include behaviours that are

general acts of management not just communication behaviours (i.e., "doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort") (Tepper, 2007, p. 262). Also, very few of these studies address the affective reactions to these negative acts of management. Consequently, I first provide a brief overview of the various constructs that have been studied as negative acts of management followed by a detailed critique of the studies that have also been undertaken to research related emotional reactions reported by employees. Then I critique those studies that have used negative managerial communication constructs as emotional triggers, and identify the gap that my research question attempts to fill.

2.3.1 Negative Acts of Management as Emotional Job Events

A number of scholars have recently called for more research into negative acts of management as emotional events. According to Hartel, Gough & Hartel, (2008): "Only a few researchers have investigated the types of job events that stimulate emotional appraisal and responses," (p. 24-25). Game (2008) goes further to write that while supervisory relationships are one of the most often cited causes of negative emotions, "knowledge about why this is so remains embryonic" (p. 356).

The earliest studies in this area were by Waldron & Krone (1991) who used open-ended questionnaires to ask some employees to recall negative, and others to recall positive emotional events at work. They found that the most common target of the emotions (30%) was the supervisor and while 37% of the events involved a relational issue, 33% were task-related. The most frequent negative emotions elicited were anger, frustration and hate; the most frequent positive emotions were joy, happiness and pride. When scored for typicality, negative events were more typically reported than positive ones. Also pertinent to the present study was the finding that when the target was a superior; "The emotional events resulted in reduced respect for the target's professionalism and managerial prowess" (p. 302). Basch & Fisher (2000) also found that management acts predominantly resulted in negative emotions (93% of the time), lending further support to the importance of acts of management that result in

negative emotional triggers, as well as to the notion of asymmetry between negative and positive emotions at work. Grandey, Tam & Brauburger's (2002) diary and survey study provides additional support for the importance of negative acts of management as emotional triggers. They found that 25% of workplace anger incidents resulted from personal attacks or incivility by supervisors.

Basch & Fisher's (2000) findings differed slightly from the aforementioned in that they found the most common emotional job events were acts of colleagues (37%) with the second most common being acts of management (22%). Typicality of emotional reactions, however, were similar to the aforementioned studies, with the most frequent negative emotions being reported as frustration, disappointment, annoyance, anger, unhappiness, sadness, disgust and hurt. Goal achievement, recognition, and acts of colleagues were mentioned the most often as contributors to the most frequent positive emotions: pleasure, happiness and pride (p. 45). Finally, Mignonac & Herrbach (2004) used a scale that included 8 positive situations (for example, praise from supervisor), and nine negative situations (for example, benefits were reduced), to identify the frequency and impact of these situations on respondents. They found: a) greater variation in the negative than the positive events and b) that the most positive emotional job events were successful task completion (51%) and praise from a supervisor (44%). The most negative events were assignments of undesired work (24%), a well-liked supervisor left their work unit (24%), problems getting along with their supervisor (18%), and problems getting along with a coworker (17%).

2.3.2 Negative Managerial Communication as an Emotional Job Event

Within the body of work that examines negative acts of management as emotional triggers, only a few studies have explored interpersonal communication in particular. Again, the earliest study was the aforementioned one by Waldron & Krone (1991) who asked respondents to recall a communication event at work that had an emotional impact on them. As a result, they identified four global communication categories, which they labeled: insults, protests, justifications and venting. Fiebig and

Kramer (1998) designed a more detailed approach that gave participants a series of open-ended questions and asked them to describe organizational incidents that brought on negative and positive experiences. Participants were asked to describe their thoughts and feelings during the incident, what they expressed at the time, and the impact the incident had on them. They also were asked to indicate the frequency of the events, as well as the frequency, intensity and duration of the emotion(s) they described. Finally, they were asked to describe an incident in which they faked an emotion. Through the development and analysis of emergent event categories, they found that "the events that resulted in emotions were typically communication interactions but were quite different for positive and negative emotions" (p. 552). The most common event for positive emotions was communication that provided unexpected recognition. For negative emotions, the most common event was that of being questioned or challenged due to a trust violation, generating a feeling that "tacit relationship agreements were broken" (p. 552). When interaction partners were analyzed in terms of negative emotions being triggered, 20% mentioned supervisors while 39% mentioned subordinates. Of the negative emotions experienced, anger was reported in 49% of the incidents, frustration in 25% and helplessness in 20%.

More recently, Dasborough (2006) using Affective Events Theory as her framework, conducted research to answer the question: What leader behaviours evoke emotional responses in employees? Her sample was composed of 10 managers and 24 employees in various sized focus groups. Using the critical incident interview technique, she asked participants about workplace interactions during or after which they recalled having both strong positive and negative emotional reactions, also called "uplifts" and "hassles". Participants could recall both positive and negative incidents as many times as they wished. Employees were asked about emotional interactions with their leader, while "leaders were asked about emotional interactions with their employees, when their own behavior evoked an emotional response in the employee" (p. 167). Employees commented that they tended not to recall uplifts, but always remembered the hassles and that, although negative incidents were not a daily

occurrence, they aroused intense emotions. Consistent with the earlier findings of Fiebig & Kramer (1998), Dasborough found that positive incidents were mainly those where their boss showed them respect or awareness of their concerns and the most common leader behaviour that evoked negative emotions tended to revolve around incidences of ineffective or inappropriate communication from the individual's superior. Content analysis of her in-depth interviews provided very general descriptions of these triggering communicative behavior, with findings such as: "Employees felt annoyed they had not been made aware of important issues; in other cases, employees were spoken to in a rude manner, leading to anger toward the leader... when he yelled at me I was terrified... after being so arrogant toward me... I was just enraged" (p. 171-172) The most common negative emotions relating to perceptions of their behaviour were annoyance/anger (41%), frustration (23%) and disappointment (19%). Other triggers of negative emotion included lack of awareness and respect, lack of motivation and inspiration, lack of empowerment, lack of reward and recognition, and lack of accountability. Dasborough (2006) discovered that *poor communication evoked "more negative emotions than any other two behaviours combined"* (p. 172).

2.4 GAP IN THE LITERATURE ON EMOTIONS AT WORK: MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION AS AN AFFECTIVE TRIGGER HAS BEEN STUDIED TOO GLOBALLY

While the evidence I have presented does make a case for managerial communication as a significant trigger of employee emotions, it is clear that the limited existing research just reviewed always treats communication in a very global manner, supplying very little behavioural description of what the manager said or how it was said. One of my goals is to provide more fine-grained descriptions of the manager's verbal and non-verbal communication behaviours that trigger the emotions. In order to accomplish this, I will now look to the body of knowledge found not within the emotions at work literature, but within the interpersonal and managerial *communications* literatures.

3. NEGATIVE MANAGERIAL INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

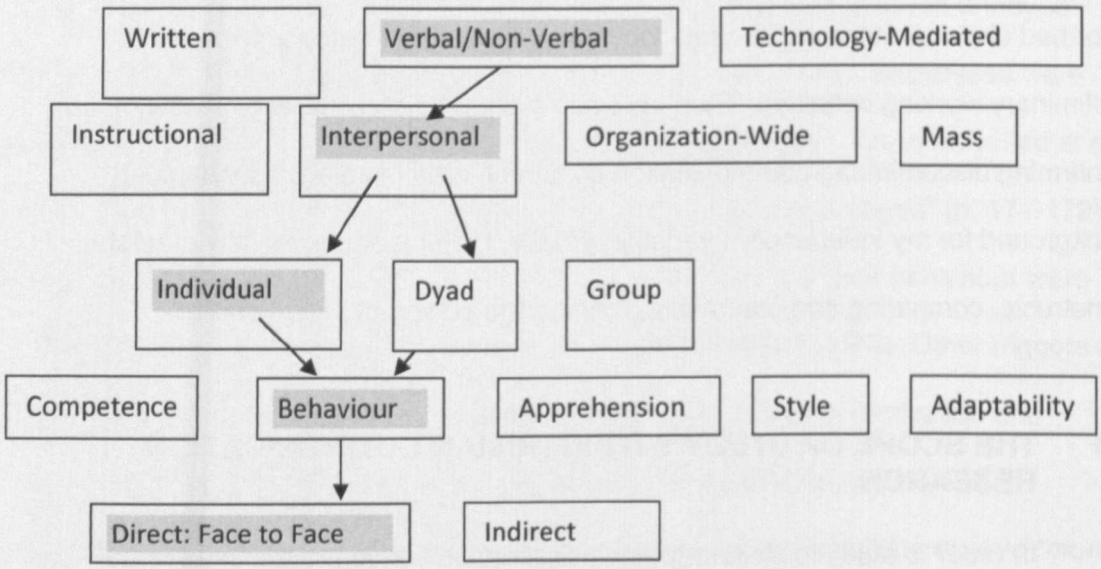
In this chapter I first establish the scope of my study by placing it in the broader context of the human communications literature. Then, I critically review the distinct approaches to understanding and defining interpersonal communication within the communications and organizational behaviour disciplines. This enables me to make an informed choice concerning the relational communications perspective and a preliminary working definition. Then I provide a detailed and critical overview of the confirming/disconfirming communication construct, creating a solid conceptual background for my independent variable. Finally, I offer a brief overview of related constructs, comparing and contrasting them to the construct I have chosen.

3.1 THE SCOPE OF STUDY WITHIN HUMAN COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

In order to study more fine-grained descriptions of verbal and non-verbal managerial communication behaviour, the human communications discipline offers broad and multi-faceted insights incorporating written, verbal, non-verbal, and technology-mediated communication. The domains of communication studied include instructional, interpersonal, organization-wide and mass communication (Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 2004). My research question explores the impact of face-to-face managerial communication on an employee's felt emotions, which means that my scope is limited to a two-person, face-to-face interaction in a workplace context. In reference to the diagram in *Figure 3.1*, my study is bounded in the following ways (bolded on the figure): 1) I am interested in verbal (and to a lesser extent non-verbal) interpersonal communication rather than written or technology-mediated communication, and 2) although conceptually I am interested in the dyad, my unit of study is actually the individual employee, the recipient of the communication. 3) I am

interested in communication behaviour (not competence etc.) and 4) I am interested in direct, face-to-face communication.

FIGURE 3.1
Human Communication Research Map and Scope of Current Study
(Sources: Jablin & Putnam, 2001; Knapp & Daly, 2002; Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 2004; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002)



3.2 APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Interpersonal communication has a long and rich history. For a good review of the historical highlights, see Knapp, Daly, Albada & Miller, (2002) and for a historical overview of communication studies in Canada see Siegel, Osler, Fouts & Tate (2000). Because context is so crucial for understanding interpersonal communication, large controversies exist concerning its definition. For example, definitions vary in terms of the number of people involved, whether or not the communication must be face-to-face, how the speech acts should be unitized, and the degree of formality and structure in the communicator's relationship. Knapp & Daly (2002) are cynical about whether it is possible to find a common definition and contend that, at minimum, most scholars can only agree that interpersonal communication involves "...at least two communicators,

intentionally orienting towards each other; as both subject and object; whose actions embody each other's perspectives both toward self and toward other" (p. 9).

Interpersonal communication scholars aim to understand and study the phenomenon in many different ways and across a number of disciplines including psychology, linguistics, communications, sociology and management. Approaches to understanding interpersonal communication have considered questions pertaining to the whole process, or subsets such as antecedents/moderators, behaviours, and consequences. The range of antecedents and moderators that have been studied include cognition, personality dispositions, contextual factors, intention, and consciousness. Those researchers interested in behavioural approaches have focused on overt verbal and non-verbal messages. Research into the consequences of interpersonal communication have explored perceptions of communication competence, acquired meanings, as well as the influence and impact on individuals' health, performance, and organizational commitment. Finally, conceptualizing interpersonal communication as relational communication requires consideration of the relationship between communicators, such as reciprocity and changes during conversations over time. I now discuss each of these perspectives as they relate to my focus in the latter category of relational communication.

3.2.1 Antecedents and Moderators

One approach to understanding interpersonal communication has been to study the underlying thoughts and/or predispositions that influence the perceived and/or overt communication behaviour. Interpersonal communication behaviour has been explained using concepts such as attributions (i.e., Barry & Crant, 2000); self-efficacy, (i.e., Chrisman, 1996); communicative adaptability (i.e., Hullman, 2007); communicative apprehension (i.e., Rubin & Rubin, 1989); and uncertainty reduction (i.e., Neuliep & Grohskopf, 2000). In addition, personality dispositions such as verbal aggressiveness, or argumentativeness, as well as the intention and consciousness of

an individual, are thought to be antecedents to communication behaviour (i.e., Rancer & Nictoera, 2007).

3.2.2 Behaviours and Consequences

Another approach to understanding interpersonal communication has been to explore behaviours (i.e., Ayoko, 2007), and style (i.e., Snavely & Mcneill, 2008) with a focus on either developing accurate behavioural descriptions, identifying their impacts and consequences, or both. Consequences that have been studied include communication competence, (i.e., Madlock, 2008, Payne, 2005), and the impacts of interpersonal communication on individuals' health and performance. Contemporary communications researchers cite the importance of studying both verbal and non-verbal behaviours (not just relying on the verbal) as well as the necessity of including "naturally occurring *overt* verbal and nonverbal behavior" (Knapp, Daly et al., 2002, p. 11). The emphasis on overt or *manifest* behaviour has come to be viewed as an important complement (rather than substitute) for self and other-reported data that helps to capture aspects of the phenomenon that are unique to the perceiver and his or her interpretations. An understanding of interpersonal communication outside of the workplace has been enhanced through a number of studies of overt communication behaviour between parties such as patient-physician, parent-child and marital communication. However, this approach is more of a rarity in the workplace, with the best example being the work of sociologist Gail Fairhurst who discovered how leaders display social structure through their use of power and social distance language forms (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Fairhurst, 1993).

3.2.3 The Relational Communication (Process) Approach

The relational communication perspective was initially called the "pragmatic" and "interactional" perspective (Rogers & Escudero, 2004) which gained prominence with Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson's *Pragmatics of Human Communication*, a 1967

publication that went against the dominant view of interpersonal communication because it:

> Had nothing to say about the ways individuals can use communication to extract money or concessions from others but offered considerable advice about the ways people can... improve their personal relationships with marital partners and close friends. (p. 7)

Relational communication emphasizes those aspects of communication that define or redefine relationships, called *meta-communication* (Henderson, 1987), and views communication as an unfolding and ever-changing process that is difficult to accurately capture. In addition to conveying content or information, communication also transmits *attitudes* towards the other person. For example, when leaders ask followers for their opinions they convey their respect for the expertise of the followers (Mohr & Wolfram, 2007). This contrasts with the traditional view of interpersonal communication (Stead, 1972) as a sequence that includes the communication source, the encoder, the message, the channel, the decoder and the communication receiver. In the relational communication approach, there is debate about what the unit of study should be, whether single or multiple utterances should be measured, and what period of time is acceptable to study (Knapp, Daly et al., 2002). Studies have explored both moment-to-moment exchanges and sequential exchanges (i.e., Gottman & Coan, 1998). Within communications research, work has examined temporal qualities during specific utterances, during specific conversations, over the course of a relationship, or of a lifetime (Knapp, Daly et al., 2002). As I am interested in managerial communication within an existing leader-member relationship, I have sympathy with the view that "interpersonal communication is a symbolic, ongoing, and interactive phenomenon in which a level of shared meaning and understanding is the central consequence" (Henderson, 1987 p.12), and I also use the following definition of relational communication as the starting point for my own working definition:

> *"Relational communication is the process of creating social relationships between at least two people by acting in concert with one another"* (Fisher & Adams, 1994, p. 18)

3.3 CONSTRUCTS PERTAINING TO NEGATIVE ACTS OF MANAGEMENT AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNCIATION

I have reviewed the psychological, communication and organizational research on interpersonal communication behaviour, in search of the best construct by which to understand the impact of negative acts of management on relational communication. As a result, I identified eight constructs that address *negative acts of management* that were not specific to interpersonal communication as follows: abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000); petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997); victimization (Aquino, 2000); communicative aggression (Dailey, Lee & Spitzberg, 2007); supervisor aggression (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002), workplace incivility (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and employee emotional abuse (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). I have also identified five *communication-specific constructs* as follows: verbal aggressiveness and argumentativeness (Infante & Wigley 1986); face threatening acts and politeness (Carson & Cupach, 2000); defensive and non-defensive communication (Stamp, Vangelisti & Daly, 1992); position-centered and person-centered communication (Fix & Sias, 2006); and confirming and disconfirming communication (Sieburg, 1976). Given my research question, I now focus on the communication-specific constructs. These constructs are defined and summarized in the next section in *Table 3.2.*

First, I describe in detail the confirming/disconfirming communication construct (which is my independent variable) and the research themes that have emerged through its use. Then I put the construct in context through a brief overview of the eight constructs that pertain to negative acts of management in general, followed by a more detailed overview that compares and contrasts the four other communication-specific constructs.

3.4 THE CONFIRMING AND DISCONFIRMING COMMUNICATION CONSTRUCT

Based on the aforementioned work of Watzlawick et al. (1967), as well as earlier scholars and philosophers such as Martin Buber (1957) and R. D. Laing (1961), Evelyn Sieburg (1969) used a relational communication frame to develop a measureable paradigm that compared effective "therapeutic" or "confirming" communication to its opposite, called "disconfirming" communication.

3.4.1 History of Disconfirmation and Confirmation

Sieburg's seminal works (Sieburg, 1969; Sieburg, 1976) form the foundation of much of the subsequent work in this field. The purpose of her original 1969 study was to develop and test an instrument to distinguish between functional and dysfunctional forms of interpersonal communication in teams. Eight live interaction groups were observed and segments were 3rd party coded. As a result of her study, she developed an interpersonal responsiveness instrument that contained two functional categories (functional content response and functional meta-communicative response), one neutral category for unclassifiable responses, and five dysfunctional response categories. Seiburg's later work (1973) involved ninety-five members of the International Communication Association responding to a mailed request asking them to describe, first, a person with whom they *most* enjoy conversing add, and second, a person with whom they *least* enjoyed conversing. She hypothesized that people would respond favourably to the more confirming people. She defined the two main factors of confirming and disconfirming communication and three disconfirming communication sub-factors which in her later theoretical work (Sieburg, 1976) came to be called impervious, indifferent and disqualifying. I will now explore the definitions of each of these factors and sub-factors in more depth.

3.4.2 Disconfirming Interpersonal Communication

Cissna & Sieburg (1981) described disconfirming communication as that which does not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant (p.23). As a result, disconfirmation denies the other as a valid communicator and instead regards them as inferior or not worthy of respect. As shown in *Table 3.1*, the disconfirmation factor was made up of 3 sub-factors (clusters) labeled "indifferent," "impervious," and "disqualifying." Sieburg (1973) describes the "indifferent" factor as communication that is impersonal or inappropriate, and is also disruptive or distancing, while the "impervious" factor is communication that denies, distorts, discounts or reinterprets another person's experience or emotion (p. 23). Finally, she describes "disqualifying" communication as that which is contradictory, unclear or tangential. The *indifferent* response means that the communicator distances him or herself from the other through the use of silence, ignoring or shutting an individual out, or by more subtle communicative indifference such as avoiding eye contact or using impersonal language such as "we" or "they" rather than "I". Indifference can also occur when subsequent communication does not flow or is not relevant to what the person just said. This has also been termed "disjunctive" communication (Whetten & Cameron, 2011) and it can take the form of denial of presence by ignoring the person's topic, or through monologue in which only one speaker goes on at length. The *impervious* response, borrowed from Laing (1961), "tends to negate or discredit the other's feeling expression" (p. 264). Impervious communication can be intentional but also unintentional, even meant as reassurance, or to help another minimize his or her self-doubts. For example, a manager might say to an employee, "You really shouldn't worry so much about what your co-workers think of you, it's not a big deal." In this example, even though it appears that the manager is trying to be reassuring, its impact may be to invalidate the employee's feeling of anxiety, and therefore could be experienced as disconfirming. Also, Laing (1961) argued that "pseudo-confirmation occurs when a responder creates and bestows on another, an inaccurate identity, and then confirms the false identity, although it is not part of the other's self-experience at all" (p. 266).

TABLE 3.1

Sieburg's Descriptive Paradigm of Interpersonal Confirmation (Sieburg 1973)

Response Category	General Orientation-Other	Transactional Indicators	Internal Indicators	
Indifference	-Denies existence -Denies involvement	-Silence when reply expected -Monologue -Absent or inappropriate nonverbal response -Disruptive interjection -Interruption	-Impersonal language -Avoids self-expression -Avoids eye contact -Physical "distancing"	DISCONFIRMATION
Disqualification	-Inhibits communication	-Irrelevant response -Transactional disqualification -Tangential response -Other disjunctions	-Unclear communication -Ambiguity -Contradiction -Incongruence -Paradox	
Imperviousness	-Denies other's self-experience	Pseudo-conjunction	Pseudo-confirmation -"mystification" Interpretation -Denial, distortion, substitution of emotional expression -Evaluation	
Dialogue/ Confirming	-Recognizes other -Acknowledges communication -Endorses and accepts other's self-experience. -Furthers interaction	-Speaks when reply expected -Congruent & appropriate nonverbal response -Listens without interruption -Responds relevantly & directly	-Personal language construction -Clear communication -Shares self-experience -Congruent verbal & nonverbal behavior -Non-evaluative acceptance -Clarification	CONFIRMATION

An example of this aspect of imperviousness is when a manager who views his or her employee as exceptionally intelligent might respond to the employee's concern about having made a mistake by saying: "I know you John, you are too smart to have made a mistake like that! While well-intentioned, this type of disconfirming, impervious communication, rather than legitimizing John's concern, endorses the manager's view of how *he* wants to see John. In addition, impervious communication can take the form of *selective responding*, such that "the speaker limits his or her responses to those he or she initiated, ignoring any topic initiated by the other" (Cissna & Sieburg, p. 266-267).

Finally, the *disqualifying* response "Enables a person to say something without really saying it, to deny without really saying 'no', and to disagree without really disagreeing" (p. 267). Three types of disqualification are proposed: 1) At the extreme, *speaker disqualification* occurs through a person disqualifying the other by directly criticizing, insulting or blaming them, or through indirect actions using non-verbal behaviours such as killer looks, sighs, disparaging tone of voice, etc. 2) *Message disqualification* overlaps with the disjunctive features of rejecting communication under "indifference" and focuses on the failure to "follow" the other person's prior utterance (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981). 3) Finally, when a message disqualifies itself, the speaker is saying something without really saying it though lack of clarity, ambiguity or *incongruence*, i.e., when there is a "mismatch between what one is experiencing and what one communicates," (Whetten & Cameron, 2011, p. 247).

3.4.3 Confirming Interpersonal Communication

In contrast to disconfirmation, confirmation is the degree that a message validates another individual as unique, valuable, and worthy of respect, (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981; Sieburg, 1976). The confirmation factor was labeled "dialogue" and was defined by the items labeled "direct response," "agreement," "clarification," "supportive response," and "expression of positive feelings" (p. 23). In order to focus research in this field, Cissna & Sieburg (1981) outlined four propositions about confirming behavior,

stating that communication will be experienced as confirming when it: 1) expresses recognition of the other's existence; 2) acknowledges some kind of relationship with the person; 3) communicates that the other person is significant or worthy; and 4) accepts the person's own experience (especially his or her feelings) as valid (p. 259).

In a more recent review of their earlier research, Cissna & Sieburg (2001) describe confirming communication as comprising of the three categories of recognition, acknowledgement and endorsement, for which they provide the following behavioural descriptions: *Recognition* involves "looking at the other, making frequent eye contact, touching, speaking directly to the person, and allowing the other the opportunity to respond without being interrupted or having to force his or her way into an ongoing monologue" (p. 269). *Acknowledgement* behaviours are evident when there is a relevant, conjunctive response, while *endorsement* includes any response "that expresses acceptance of the other's feelings as being true, accurate, and okay" (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981, p. 270). More recently, this concept has been expressed as; "Verbal Consideration," which expresses esteem for the follower and her or his work, knowledge and opinion" (Mohr & Wolfram, 2007, p. 4). Generally speaking, endorsement behaviours are manifested in three distinct ways: as a process in which the communicator allows the other to express negative feelings without judgment or criticism, by communicating non-verbal acceptance through body language or tone of voice, and by saying something like: "It sounds as if you had a lousy day today."

3.4.4 Research Themes in Confirming and Disconfirming Communication

In Sieburg's original work (1969) that involved observing and coding live interaction groups, she concluded that the interactions observed in the "effective" groups had significantly fewer dysfunctional responses than those observed in the "ineffective" groups. In addition, the "effective" groups exhibited fewer impervious, tangential or ambiguous responses. Sieburg (1969) used what she called a "Known Groups" procedure which involved: "Asking group leaders to identify particular groups in their own experience that are the 'most effective' and the 'least effective' according

to certain criteria unrelated to communicative responsiveness" (p. 73). Even though she admitted that this method could have been partly based; "upon the interaction of members rather than on the criteria provided by the researcher" (p. 117), and review of her criteria entitled; "Ideal Description of an 'Effective" Group" (p. 74-75) does suggest bias, her research created a great deal of interest and follow-up research (i.e., Jacobs, 1973; Jablin, 1977; Lifshitz, 1979; Heineken, 1980; Garvin & Kennedy, 1986; Ellis, 2002; Dailey, 2005; Dailey, 2006). Rather than report on this research chronologically, I will organize my review around the following themes: a) Confirming and disconfirming communication are distinguishable; b) Incidences of confirming tend to be higher than incidences of disconfirming communication; c) Self-reported confirming and disconfirming communication do not tend to match third party reports; and d) confirming and disconfirming communication relationships have specific individual and team level outcomes.

The first theme in the research demonstrates that disconfirming and confirming interpersonal communication can be reliably distinguished by trained *third party* observers, as shown in the following examples: Both Sieburg (1969) and Heineken (1980) studied a mix of psychiatric and "normal" groups and trained third parties to code segments of audiotapes. Inter-rater reliability was high in both studies (.97 and .94). Garvin & Kennedy (1986) studied 40 nurse-medical resident dyads that were instructed to engage in a 30-minute decision-making task while being videotaped. Inter-rater reliability was .95 for confirmation and .82 for disconfirmation. More recently, Dailey (2005) videotaped 57 parent-adolescent dyads during a discussion about moral dilemmas. Using refined observational coding techniques, she measured not just inter-rater reliability (.81 to .83) but also unitization reliability (.88), to assess whether the speech units were divided up in a meaningful and consistent manner by different coders.

Confirming and disconfirming communication were also discernible when *self-report* was used rather than (or in addition to) observational coding. For example, Jacobs (1973) set up six experimental conditions so that trained interviewers would

exhibit various kinds of either confirming or disconfirming communication behaviours. Her analysis of variance results supported her hypothesis that confirming and disconfirming behaviours are distinguishable to those experiencing them. Four years later, Jablin (1977) created ten experimental videos that each contained a superior-subordinate interaction that was either unfavourable to the supervisor or unfavourable to the subordinate. The superiors' responses in the videotapes were experimentally manipulated to conform to one of five types of message-response categories: confirming (positive content and positive relational feedback), disagreeing (negative content feedback but positive relational feedback), acceding (positive content but negative relational feedback), repudiating (negative content and negative relational feedback), or disconfirming (irrelevant or inappropriate content and "equally irrelevant relational feedback") (p. 42). After watching a videotape, participants were asked to write the actual words they thought the superior would say in response to what the subordinate (on the videotape) had just told him, followed by an instruction to write the words they would "prefer the superior should say in response to what the subordinate has just told him" (p. 228). Third party coders rated the responses using the five categories and inter-rater reliability was judged to be .80 and the intra-rater reliability was between 86.6% and 90%. This data suggests that confirming and disconfirming communication behaviour is readily discernible.

The second theme in the research to date, demonstrates that the incidences of confirming communication tends to be higher than incidences of disconfirming communication in "normal" populations. For example, in Heineken's (1980) study confirming communication accounted for 90% of the utterances in the "normal" group and averaged 75% in the psychiatric groups, while disconfirming communication accounted for only 10% in the normal group and 16.7% to 25% within the psychiatric groups. Furthermore, Garvin & Kennedy (1986) found that during a decision-making task, 87% of the utterances were coded as confirming. In their study, formerly unacquainted nurses and medical residents had to make a hypothetical decision on how to spend a $35,000 gift to the hospital. When disconfirming communication was

noted, *indifference* was the most frequently coded category, even though its incidence was low. The authors attribute these findings to the following four issues:
1) Members of the dyad were strangers; 2) the status differences were minimized because the doctors were residents; 3) the task itself was neither controversial nor personally relevant; and 4) utterance units should have been coded for longer sequences. The fourth observation suggests that disconfirmation cannot be captured when short interactions are coded because meta-communication usually takes longer to manifest itself. Finally, Dailey (2005) composed a more recent study in which parents and their adolescent children were asked to try to resolve a moral dilemma over which they disagreed and only 21% of the parents' responses during these discussions were coded as disconfirming.

The third theme demonstrates that self-reports of confirming and disconfirming communication tend not to match third party reports. For example, in the aforementioned study, Dailey (2006) found a significant negative correlation between perceived parental disconfirmation and self-reported adolescent openness, however, when observers coded a live discussion about a moral dilemma over which the adolescent and parent disagreed, the observational data did not corroborate the self-report findings (p. 452). The author suggests that the inconsistency may be a result of the parents' behaviour being more affected by the setting than the adolescents, which limits the observational methodology and may have restricted the interactions. This is discussed further in my methodology chapter. Another plausible explanation is that third-party coders were unable to detect the meta-communication perceived by the adolescents.

Finally, the fourth theme demonstrates that confirming and disconfirming communication is related to certain individual and team level outcomes and/or preferences. As discussed earlier, Sieburg's (1969) original research suggested that the interactions observed in the "effective" groups had significantly fewer dysfunctional responses than observed in the "ineffective" groups, and the "effective" groups had fewer impervious, tangential or ambiguous responses. Even though her method for

distinguishing the effective from the ineffective groups was flawed, later studies have provided some support for her conclusions. For example, when satisfaction outcomes were explored rather than effectiveness, Jacobs (1973) found that disconfirming interpersonal communication tended to be associated with lower performance satisfaction and Jablin (1977) found that subordinates preferred to receive responses from supervisors in descending rank order: confirming, disagreeing, acceding, repudiating and disconfirming. In the aforementioned Heineken (1980) study, even though incidences of confirming communication were much higher than disconfirming communication, the psychiatric patient groups were found to have disconfirmed significantly more than non-psychiatric groups. Similarly, while Dailey (2006) found that incidence of confirming communication were much higher than incidences of disconfirming communication among parents, she did find that based on self-report data, perceived parental disconfirmation related negatively to self-reported adolescent openness.

It is notable that while disconfirming and confirming communication have been explored in relation to team effectiveness, performance satisfaction, psychiatric vs. normal individuals, communication preferences, and adolescent openness, no studies to date have looked at the relationships between confirming and disconfirming communication as an emotional trigger – this is one of the gaps that my study hopes to fill.

3.5 RELATED MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION CONSTRUCTS

Definitions for the aforementioned eight negative acts of management and five communication-specific constructs are summarized in *Table 3.2.* The definitions in the first part of the table show that negative acts of management, also defined as non-physical, supervisor hostility, encompass a great deal more than verbal and non-verbal communication. For example, the abusive supervision construct (Tepper, 2000), includes invading the employee's privacy, breaking promises, failing to give an

employee credit for his or her work and preventing the employee from interacting with co-workers.

Hence these constructs (that are not exclusively communicative) are not discussed, while those that are exclusively communicative (verbal aggressiveness, face-threatening acts, defensive communication and position-centered communication) are now compared to the confirming/disconfirming communication construct

TABLE 3.2
Negative Acts of Management and Managerial Communication Constructs

NEGATIVE ACTS OF MANAGEMENT	
Abusive Supervision	Subordinates perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact (Tepper, 2000).
Petty Tyranny	Managers' use of power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and vindictively (Ashforth, 1997).
Victimization	The individual's self-perception of having been exposed, either momentarily or repeatedly, to aggressive actions emanating from one or more other persons (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000).
Communicative Aggression	Any recurring set of messages that function to impair a person's enduring preferred self-image. (Dailey et al, 2007).
Supervisor Aggression	Supervisor behavior that is intended to physically or psychologically harm a worker or workers in a work-related context (Schat, Desmarais, et al., 2006).
Supervisor Undermining	Supervisor behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation (Duffy et al 2002).
Workplace Incivility*	Low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others (Cortina, Magley et al 2001).
Employee Emotional Abuse*	Repetitive, targeted, and destructive communication by more powerful members toward less powerful members in the workplace (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

TABLE 3.2 (Continued)

	NEGATIVE MANAGERIAL INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION
Verbal aggressiveness: (Argumentativeness)	A personality trait that predisposes persons to attack the self-concepts of other people instead of, or in addition to, their positions on topics of communication (Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 61).
Position–Centered Communication (Person-Centered/Comforting)	"...forwards rules, commands, and threats that discourage individuals from perceiving themselves as autonomous and responsible agents, and from reflecting upon their own feelings by criticizing those feelings and/or telling the individual how they should behave. This style of communication is essentially based on message features that rely on and accentuate the status difference(s) of the relationship partners" (Fix & Sias, 2006, p. 37).
Face-threatening Communication (Politeness)	Acts that by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker. Face wants capture the social image one has of him/herself based on other's approval. Workplace reproaches include threats, warnings, expressions of disapproval, criticism, contempt or ridicule, complaints and reprimands (Carson & Cupach, 2000).
Defensive Communication (Non-Defensive)	- "The more defensive arousing the communication climate, the less the receiver reads into the communication distorted loadings which arise from projections of his own anxieties, motives, concerns" (Gibb, 1961) - Involving a self-perceived flaw that an individual refuses to admit to another person, sensitivity to that flaw and an attack by another person that focuses on the flaw (Stamp et al 1992).
Disconfirming Communication (Confirming)	Communication which does not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant. This includes imperviousness, indifference and disqualification (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981).

3.5.1 Verbal Aggressiveness/Argumentativeness

Verbal aggressiveness is defined as: "A personality trait that predisposes persons to attack the self-concepts of other people instead of, or in addition to, their positions on topics of communications" (Infante & Wigley, 1986, p. 61). Verbal aggressiveness has been found to correlate negatively with satisfaction toward a supervisor, organizational commitment, and work satisfaction. Self-reports indicate a higher incidence of verbal aggressiveness in males than females (Rancer & Nicotera, 2007), however, this construct does not fit the relational perspective that I am following or my working definition of interpersonal communication: "*the process of creating social*

relationships between at least two people by acting in concert with one another." The focus of verbal aggressiveness is on influence rather than relationship development and it assumes an intention "to deliver psychological pain" (Infante et. al., 1993).

3.5.2 Face Threatening Acts (FTA)

Gail Fairhurst (Fairhurst, 2004; Fairhurst, 2001; Fairhurst, 1993; Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989) is a sociolinguist notable for her fine-grained analysis and descriptions of the face-to-face communication in organizational settings. Fairhurst's theoretical framework derives from sociologist Irving Goffman's (1967) Face Threat model, which defines *face* as one's public identity, or positive social values that are publicly claimed during an interaction. Another sociolinguist named Metts (1997) has expanded upon earlier definitions to describe *positive face* needs as "the desire to have the attributes or qualities that one values appreciated and approved of by people who are relevant to those attributes or qualities" (p. 380). This concept of *positive face* is similar to the concept of confirming communication. Metts (1997) added the concept of "Facework" which she defined as strategies for preventing and/or restoring face loss, and facilitating the maintenance of poise if interactions are disrupted.

In Fairhurst's seminal work (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989), she studied a manager interacting with three of his employees and used third party coding of transcripts to provide rich micro-descriptions of verbal and non-verbal messages. She found differences in how the manager communicated with his in-group and out-group employees – and concluded that the manager tended to use more performance monitoring, face threatening acts (FTAs), accusations, interruptions, non-supportive statements, power games, topic control, and disconfirmation with out-group employees, than with those in his in-group. Other scholars have also used Goffman's framework to explore managerial communication. For example, Morand (1996) found that speakers at lower power levels relative to the person they were communicating with used fewer face-threatening acts. Carson & Cupach (2000) also applied Goffman's framework to explore employee reactions to reproaches from their managers. Respondents were

asked to "consider a recent time when they were verbally reproached by their supervisor and then to describe the reproach (and their response to the reproach) in as much detail as possible" (Carson & Cupach, 2000, p. 224). Also, Spencer-Oatey (2000) expanded upon the FTA model by creating a framework she called "Rapport Management" which Campbell, White & Durant (2007) applied to the workplace. They obtained handwritten narratives about an incident at work that had made the employee angry, coding "rapport management violations." They made eight propositions based on their findings, but the one most pertinent to this study is their proposition that "Managers who threaten a subordinate's quality and social identity face wants will increase subordinate perceptions of interpersonal injustice" (p. 173-174). Although Goffman's Face Threatening model addresses many of the aspects of confirming and disconfirming communication, it focuses more on image, identity and social approval, which does not fit my working definition of interpersonal communication as building a social relationship.

3.5.3 Defensive and Non-Defensive Communication/Climate

Defensiveness has been researched as either a climate or an *outcome* of disconfirming communication. Gibb (1961) originally defined defensive behaviour as that which occurs "when an individual perceives threat or anticipates threat in the group" (p. 141). As shown in *Table 3.3,* his model contained six pairs of behaviour characteristics, with each pair distinguished in terms of the impact on the other person.

TABLE 3.3
Behavior Characteristics of Supportive, and Defensive Climates in Small Groups. (Gibb, 1961)

	Defensive Climates		Supportive Climates
1	Evaluation	1	Description
2	Control	2	Problem Orientation
3	Strategy	3	Spontaneity
4	Neutrality	4	Empathy
5	Superiority	5	Equality
6	Certainty	6	Provisionalism

For example, he wrote that an individual could be seen as evaluating or judging the other person through their expression, manner of speech, or tone of voice instead of communicating more descriptively. For the *control* category, he writes that a "Legalistic insistence on detail" is viewed as controlling, while, on the opposite side of the chart, a *problem orientation* communicates the desire to collaborate. Behaviours that fit within the *strategy* category (opposite to *spontaneity*) were described as occurring "when the sender is perceived as engaged in a stratagem involving ambiguous and multiple motivations" (p. 145). *Neutrality* (opposite to *empathy*) is when the listener indicates a lack of concern for the other's welfare. *Superiority* (opposite to *equality*) is when an individual projects dogmatism and feels superior "in position, power, wealth, intellectual ability, physical characteristics, or other ways" (p. 147).

Stamp et al (1992) further developed Gibb's work, and realized that communication behaviours that trigger defensiveness bear quite a bit of resemblance to disconfirming communication. The behaviours that they identify include unasked-for attempts to persuade, interruptions, correcting statements, disagreements, consistent use of "You" statements, a lack of provisional verbs, and loud, rapid and monotone speech (Stamp et al., 1992, p. 180). One of the central problems of this construct for my study is that it focuses on a specific outcome (i.e., defensiveness and non-defensiveness) whereas my main interest is in more general outcomes, and a broader set of emotional reactions.

3.5.4 Position/Person-Centered (Comforting) Communication

Position- and Person-Centered Communication (PCC) is based on a particular type of sociolinguistic code thought to differentially affect the quality of communication (Applegate & Delia, 1980). This construct has its roots in a constructivist perspective from which relational communication derives, but it places less emphasis on relationship development and more on examining how message features "rely on and accentuate the status difference(s) of the relationship partners," (Fix & Sias, 2006, p.

37). Position-centered communication bears some relation to disconfirming communication as the person:

> ....forwards rules, commands, and threats that discourage individuals from perceiving themselves as autonomous and responsible agents, and from reflecting upon their own feelings by criticizing those feelings and/or telling the individual how he or she should behave. (p.37)

Person-centered communication is similar to confirming communication, but focuses on helping and comforting the individuals by exploring their motivations, feelings, and intentions (Burleson, Delia & Applegate, 1995). Fix & Sias (2006) applied the PCC construct to the managerial context, asking respondents to produce messages in response to hypothetical situations to measure employees' expectations of their supervisors' use of PCC. The scenario, however, was one in which the supervisor was required to comfort an employee about an upcoming redesign to his/her job. Correlational analysis revealed a significant relationship between PCC and employee perception of relationship quality and job satisfaction (Fix & Sias, 2006). In addition, Person-Centered Communication has also been researched under the heading of "Supportive Communication," which Burleson & MacGeorge (2002) further divide into sub-categories of supportive messages and supportive interactions. They define supportive messages as "specific lines of communicative behavior enacted by one party with the intent of benefiting or helping another" (p. 386). Supportive interactions are "extended conversational sequences or episodes that also include seeking, receiving, processing, and responding to supportive efforts" (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002, p. 386). Borrowing from Gibb's (1961) model of supportive and defensive communication climates, they found that messages are perceived to be more supportive when they are more descriptive than evaluative; in other words, when the intent is perceived to be supportive, when politeness strategies are used, when they contain adequate information, and when they take a person-centered approach (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002, p. 404). However, because PCC has been primarily

interpreted in the context of *comforting* communication, It is less relevant to the managerial context than the broader confirming/disconfirming communication construct.

3.6 RATIONALE FOR SELECTING THE CONFIRMING AND DISCONFIRMING CONSTRUCT

After reviewing all five of the interpersonal communication constructs, I rejected each of them for the following reasons: 1) Verbal Aggressiveness and Argumentativeness does not take a relational perspective; 2) Position and Person-Centered communication narrows its focus to comforting and support; 3) The Face Threat model and research takes a sociological rather than psychological perspective and focuses more on image, identity and social approval than on relationship building; and 4) Defensive and Non-Defensive communication narrows its focus in terms of outcomes and I am interested in emotional responses beyond defensiveness.

There are also four compelling reasons behind my choice to pursue the confirming and disconfirming communication construct for my study: 1) it is firmly rooted in the relational communications perspective with a focus on "the process of creating social relationships" as discussed in my working definition in section 3.1; 2) it offers rich and fine-grained descriptions of three positive and three negative types of interpersonal communication behaviour; 3) the construct descriptions are mostly written in behavioural and observable terms such as "maintains eye contact" and "expresses acceptance of the other's feelings." These behavioural descriptions have proved themselves to be robust in making the sub-dimensions of confirming and disconfirming behaviour distinguishable; and 4) it addresses both verbal and non-verbal interpersonal communication behaviours (although it is predominantly verbal). Thus, the construct fits my requirement for a more fine-grained description of managerial verbal and non-verbal communication behaviour, discussed as a key gap in the emotions at work literature in Section 2.3.3.

4. INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION CONTEXT

I begin this chapter by offering a definition of "communicative context" and I review a few of the taxonomies that have been proposed as ways of classifying the numerous variables that have been considered important as influences on meaning interpretation. Using Spitzberg and Cupach's (2002) taxonomy as my framework for this section, first I give a brief overview of what is known about the contextual influences of culture, time and place. Then I conduct a more extensive literature review of the two contextual influences most relevant to my thesis: The influences of relationship context and episode (goal) context.

For relationship context, I begin with a review of the literature pertaining to its general importance for this thesis, followed by a more focused consideration of the work that is specific to the topics of organizational relationships, leader-member exchange, and interpersonal communication. Based on this review, I argue that in the few cases where managerial communications have been examined as emotional triggers, there has been a dearth of attention paid to consideration of the influence of relationship context. Next, I explore how the goals of the communication episode provide the context for the communication, and I tie my definition of discourse goals explicitly into previous definitions of emotion which emphasize it as being goal focused. I provide a brief overview, differentiating between three distinct goal types-identity, relationship and instrumental- that have been found to exist across a variety of different situations. Then I describe the "dominance-persuasion" goal types that are uniquely found in complaint situations. I explore how individuals differ in the way they reconcile competing or incongruent goals, and finally I make connections between these findings and my independent variables of confirming and disconfirming managerial communication

4.1 INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATIVE CONTEXTS

Interpersonal communication context is important and most human communication and psychology scholars concur with Bateson (1978) that "without context, words and actions have no meaning at all" (p. 15). They also agree with Goffman's (1974) broad definition of context as referring to the subjective interpretation of the frame within which interaction occurs. However, communication contexts have been understood and studied in a number of different ways using a variety of taxonomies: I offer four examples at the macro level: First, distinctions have been made based on social settings (i.e. cocktail parties, workplace), types of relationships and roles (i.e. workplace, social, and family), objects or characteristics of the environment, and message variables (Knapp et al, 2002, p. 13). Second, Weick (2001) proposes a taxonomy that includes the seven variables of social setting, identity, retrospect, cues, ongoing development, plausibility, and enactments, abbreviated as SIRCOPE (p.461). Third, Spitzberg and Cupach (2002) summarize the literature to argue that context is interpreted through the intersection of the five variables of culture, time, place, relationship, and function (goals), and that these "combine in various ways to both limit and be limited by interaction" (p. 584). Fourth, Littlejohn & Foss, (2005) propose that discourse or "text" is influenced by at least four levels of context or frames of reference. One context is always embedded within another such that each context is actually part of a bigger one, much like a set of Russian wooden dolls. At the first level, the "relationship context" is made up of the dyad's mutual expectations, as well as the perceptions of how one is viewed in the relationship, as discussed by Watzlawick et al (1967). This relationship context is embedded in the "episode context" which is the event, as well as the multiple goals each communicator brings to the event. The episode context is further embedded within the self-concept context which includes one's sense of personal definition. Finally this self-concept context is embedded within the archetype context, defined as an image of general truth.

At the micro level of message variables, definitions of communication context have included patterns of linguistic organization and cues, or patterns of meaning that provide context for sense-making. Context has also been defined as an object of uncertainty, as a source of information by which to attribute another person's behaviour, and as a source by which to evaluate whether an expectation has been violated or met (Knapp et al, 2002, p.13).

In spite of the varying taxonomies and ways of understanding micro and macro communication contexts, a number of common underlying assumptions do exist in the literature, largely based on the aforementioned work of Goffman (see Haslett, 1987). First, it is assumed that communication is intentional, and that there is a constant interplay between person and situation. Second, a distinction is made between the actual context, which is verifiable in terms of objective criteria and the context which might be perceived by the communicators. Third, there is general agreement that communication plays a critical role in defining the context. Finally, it is understood that context is bi-directional in that it influences the interaction, while at the same time also being defined by it.

Given the large amount of theory and research that exists on communicative context, I now provide only a brief overview of culture, time and place context, but expand on the two contextual variables which are most relevant to my study: First, the relationship context and second, the episode context, as defined by the function or goals of the interaction.

4.2 CULTURE, TIME, AND PLACE AS COMMUNICATION CONTEXT

The term *culture* represents the "intergenerational patterns of beliefs, values, and behaviours that are relatively consensual and transferable within the group" (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002, p. 584). Interpersonal communication competence has been found to vary depending upon the communicators' culture, cultural values, race, nationality, ethnic identification and perceptual orientations to the world (Spitzberg &

Brunner, 1991). For example, Matveev found that while Americans valued a person's skills, communication abilities, factual information exchange, and cultural knowledge, Russians valued linguistic fluency, intelligence, and "being able to engage in a deep soulful conversing" (Matveev, 2004, p. 55). Similarly, Morisaki (1997) found significant differences between American and Japanese university students in interpersonal communication resourcefulness in terms of culture, self-construal orientations, and values orientations (Morisaki, 1997). While cultural context has been identified as critically important for understanding interpersonal communication, I decided to undertake a mono-cultural study and I have not, therefore, formally considered culture as a variable. I will discuss the implications of this further in my discussion section.

Interpersonal communication perceptions and impacts also *vary over time*, depending upon how long one has known someone. For example, differences have been found between proximal and distal effects during interpersonal communication between married couples. Proximal effects have to do with immediate, changeable, event-dependent aspects of a particular situation, whereas distal effects concern the stable characteristics of the person (Sanford, 2007). Groundbreaking longitudinal studies of married couples (i.e., Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) suggest that certain types of interpersonal communications cause dissatisfaction in the short term, such as disagreement and anger exchanges, but in the long run they might actually not be harmful. In addition, Spitzberg & Cupach (2007) argue that temporality can lead to "functional ambivalence," or paradoxical findings that are dependent on context, suggesting that actions or communication behaviours might be interpreted differently during the early stages in a relationship rather than if they occurred at a subsequent point in that relationship. Barry & Crant (2000) have proposed a model of interactional richness based on message patterns over time. They found that social perceptions of workplace relationships and interpersonal communication competence were often based on previous encounters and cognitions, and on attributions of motives influenced

by earlier incidents. I will address this contextual factor by including, as a control variable, the length of time that an employee has worked for the manager.

4.3 RELATIONSHIP CONTEXT

In this section, I propose that in order to properly interpret the antecedents, behaviours and/or consequences of interpersonal communication one must understand the type and quality of the relationship between the communicators. My goals for this section are to: a) provide evidence for this claim; b) show that within the emotions at work literature, very little attention has been paid to the relational context for managerial communication; c) explain leader-member exchange (LMX), which is my framework for exploring relationship quality as a moderator in my study; d) further develop my argument by taking a relational communication perspective and providing a critical overview of the findings that pertain to the leader-member relationship quality (LMX) from the employee's perspective. Based on this review I will argue that, while positive results from high quality leader-member relationships seem evident, it is difficult to assess whether relationship quality is an outcome, antecedent and/or moderator of leader behaviour on employee reactions and performance.

Relationship context has been found to be important in marital, parent-adolescent and patient-physician interactions (i.e., Rogers & Escudero, 2004; Hess, 2000; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) as well as in the workplace (i.e., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Perceptions vary depending upon whether the communication is between friends, strangers or acquaintances, co-workers or bosses, and subordinates (Spitzberg & Brunner, 1991). Interpersonal communication is also influenced by factors such as the hierarchy, power and dependence in the relationship (Barry & Crant 2000). As discussed earlier from the relational communications perspective: "Every communication has a content and relationship aspect such that the latter classifies the former and is therefore a meta-communication" (Watzlawick et al., 1967, p. 54). I will now argue that, in spite of the importance of relationship quality as a contextual

variable for interpersonal communication, very little attention has been paid to it within the emotions at work literature.

Interestingly, only the earliest two studies of communication and emotion in the workplace explored relationships, but not as contexts. Waldron & Krone (1991) explored relationship issues as communication outcomes (which they called relational *changes*), and as emotional triggers, (which they called relational *issues*). The research question pertinent to their exploration of relationship quality as a communication outcome was the following: "*How (if at all) do organizational relationships change subsequent to the experience or expression of emotion?*" (p. 293). As an answer to this question, Waldron & Krone (1991) found that 65.7% of respondents indicated that "their relationship with the target of the emotion had changed because of the emotional event" (p. 300) and that this percentage was significant ($p < .002$). In addition, they found that the impact of the relationship change was affected by whether the respondent expressed or repressed their feelings – repression of the negative feelings was associated with reported changed (lowered) perceptions of relationship quality. When they asked about the triggers of negative emotions, they found that the largest percentage of the reported events (37.2%) were relational issues, which included violations of the rights, status or expectations associated with the relationship. Building on these findings, Fiebig & Kramer (1998) also addressed relationship as an emotional trigger, confirming that one third of the triggers of negative emotions at work, which they called catalysts, were due to perceptions that "tacit relationship agreements were broken" (p. 552).

Unfortunately, later studies did not take relationships into account at all. For example, Basch & Fisher (2000) asked hotel employees to describe organizational events that recently caused them to experience one of ten specified emotions at work – they were asked to describe their response to the event as well as the eventual outcome. Negative events were grouped into five emergent categories (acts of management, acts of colleagues, acts of customers, task problems and external environment), but relationship issues were not studied. Grandey et al. (2002), in their

diary study of emotional reactions at work, identified a number of employee anger events that were triggered by their supervisors, coworkers and customers, but once again relationships were not explored because the research focused on within-person variability and the impact of emotions on turnover intentions. Although Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) identified that problems getting along with supervisors were frequent and were associated with the emotions of anxiety, anger and tiredness, their study failed to take relationship quality into account: "Although significant, it appears that work events are only one cause of affective states among other determinants: individual dispositions, life events or the more general work environment" (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004, p. 231). Clearly, what is missing from this list is relationship context. Dasborough (2006) found that ineffective and inappropriate supervisory communication was the most common leader behaviour to evoke negative emotions (discussed in 2.3.2). She failed, however, to collect any indications of relationship quality, calling for future LMX research to consider the emotional aspects of specific exchange relationships. In a later study of relationships between team members she did explore relationship quality, and she found that positive rather than negative emotions were associated with high-quality relationships (Tse & Dasborough 2008).

Finally, a few recent studies from emotion regulation research have actually considered relationship quality in their studies. For example, when Emily Butler (2004) studied social sharing of emotions, and emotion regulation between previously unacquainted dyads, she found that participants who were instructed to suppress their negative emotion in discussing a disturbing film reported lower levels of relationship quality than those who were not instructed to suppress. Along similar lines, Glaso & Einarsen, (2006) found that when individuals suppressed or faked their emotions, they also tended to perceive lower relationship quality with their superiors. In addition, correlations between these factors and subordinates' life satisfaction were weak, suggesting that the effects appear to be specific to the leader-subordinate relationship.

4.3.1 Relationship Context within Leader-Member Exchange

The construct that is most widely used to understand relational context in the organizational literature is leader-member exchange or LMX, although it has been proposed as context, as an antecedent and as a consequence of managerial and employee behaviour. I will now provide a brief overview of the model, followed by a summary of its many correlates.

While most leadership theories view leaders as individuals who treat all their employees in the same way, (either with a more task-oriented, relationship-oriented, or transformational leadership style), using an "Average Leadership Style" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), leader-member exchange (LMX) theory argues that leaders have different relationships, and therefore behave differently, with different employees. Leader-member exchange was initially conceived of as a duality between certain preferred employees that were in the leader's "in-group" and other, less preferred employees who were in the leader's "out-group" (e.g., Graen & Schiemann, 1978). These two groups were referred to as "differentiated dyads" or the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model. Employees characterized as the "in-group" described the relationship with their managers as having: "*a high degree of trust, respect and obligation,*" while those employees in the "out-group" reported that "they acted essentially as 'hired hands' who did only what was required by their job descriptions" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 227).

Leader Member Exchange research has moved away from its initial vertical-dyad-linkage assumptions into a focus on the importance of building high quality relationships with *all* subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). Relational Leadership Theory (Uhl-Bien, 2006) is the most recent version of leader-member exchange and interestingly, its assumptions are very similar to those found in the relational communications perspective discussed in chapter three, but are applied at a higher systems level. Uhl-Bien (2006) defines relational leadership as "a social influence process through which emergent coordination (i.e. evolving social order) and change (new values, attitudes, approaches, behaviour and ideologies) are constructed and

produced" (p. 655). Even transformational leadership theorists are beginning to consider the importance of relationship quality, as evidenced by a recent paper by Yukl, O'Donnell and Taber (2009).

4.3.2 Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Outcomes

Good leader-member relations are important to organizational outcomes because they build social capital, which is: "The sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from, the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit" (Uhl-Bien, Graen & Scandura, 2000, p. 139). Thus, social (rather than human) capital is the quality created between people and is therefore dependent upon the existence of a relationship (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Many positive organizational outcomes have been found to correlate with high quality leader-member relationships, however it is difficult to determine whether relationship quality is an antecedent, or a moderator of these outcomes – or, conversely, if the organizational outcome is, in fact, the antecedent of the high relationship quality. Examples of relationship quality correlates include: increased performance ratings, satisfaction with supervisor, overall satisfaction, commitment, role clarity, member competence and lower role conflict and turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). More recently, relationship quality (as perceived by employees) has been found to be related to performance ratings (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska & Gully, 2003) and to less defensive communication (Becker et al., 2005), higher expectancy confirmation and lower expectancy violations (Barry & Crant, 2000). Relationship quality has also been related to relationship-oriented leader behaviour, and leading by example, but not to task-oriented, or change oriented transformational leadership behaviour (Yukl et al 2009). Also, Werbel & Henriques (2009) found that employees' perception of their relationship quality with their supervisors was related to interactional justice perceptions, and operational concerns such as employee availability, competence, discreteness, and openness. Farr-Wharton & Brunetto (2007) identified that employees' perceptions of their relationship quality with their managers were related to

their acceptance of organizational changes, and Graham & van Witteloostuijn (2010) found that relationship quality, combined with the nature and frequency of their interpersonal interactions with their immediate supervisors, predicted employee burnout.

4.3.3 Leader-Member Exchange and Communication

The most detailed studies on relationship quality and interpersonal communication were conducted by sociolinguists Gail Fairhurst and Teresa Chandler (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989). In their aforementioned research, they studied the way one manager interacted with employees with whom he had varying degrees of relationship quality. Through detailed coding of conversation transcripts, they found that the manager tended to use more of the following behaviours when communicating with the employees with whom he had a lower quality relationship: performance monitoring (i.e., the manager invokes exclusive rights to comment on the employee's performance), face threatening acts (FTAs), accusations, interruptions, non-supportive statements, power games, topic control, and disconfirmation. Building on this study, Fairhurst (1993) went on to obtain data from self-report and actual routine work conversations between six female managers and their employees. She identified 12 discourse patterns in the managers' communications that discriminated between their high, medium and low quality relationships with employees. Four patterns stood out as more frequent when managers were communicating with employees with whom they had low or medium quality relationships: consistent with her earlier study she found more *performance monitoring* and *face-threatening acts.* She also describes more *competitive conflict* defined as "disagreement, interruptions, control orientation... competition with differences unresolved" (p. 343) as well as *power games*, which she defined as silence, boasting and one-upmanship.

Other studies that have explored the communication correlates of relationship quality, using the leader-member exchange perspective, have been less detailed but are still informative. For example, employees reporting high quality relationships with

their supervisors were more likely to agree with their bosses on the degree of severity for 21 potential job problems (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) provided a comprehensive review of LMX research conducted prior to the early 1990s summarizing that when managers have high quality relationships with their employees, they have greater value agreement, employees have greater satisfaction with their managers' communications, and participate more fully in decision-making, and they tend to communicate more frequently with them, (p.227). In more recent studies, it has been found that employees who perceive a good relationship with their managers are more likely to articulate their concerns rather than hold back or displace their dissent (Kassing, 2000), and that communication frequency acts a moderator between relationship quality, and performance ratings, (Kacmar et al. 2003). In this latter study, the communication frequency measure included face-to-face, written, phone and electronic communication items. Interestingly, they found that communication frequency had an amplifying effect on performance ratings – at high levels of relationship quality, employees reporting frequent communication with their managers received more favourable job-performance ratings than employees that reported infrequent communication. By contrast, for those employees reporting low levels of relationship quality, frequent communication with their supervisor resulted in less favourable job-performance ratings than those reporting infrequent communication. Kacmar et al. (2003) speculate that the amplifying effect of communication frequency was because communications between managers and employees with high quality relationships are more positive and supportive, whereas interactions between managers and low quality LMX employees are more "negative and confrontational" (p. 770). They call for a more detailed analysis of the actual communication exchanges in order to confirm this interpretation. Finally, Yrle, Hartman & Galle (2003) found that participation in decision-making, and two-way communications, were also correlates of good manager-employee relationship quality. As this study is very relevant to mine, I will discuss it in more depth. Data was collected from manager-employee dyads (with managers having at least two employees reporting to them) using Hatfield and

Huseman's (1982) survey as well as a leader-member exchange survey. They found that employees who perceived high relationship quality with their supervisors participated in supervisor/subordinate discussions more often, and were more likely to report that their supervisors were two-way communicators. Surprisingly, however, they did *not* find a significant correlation between relationship quality and the factor called "expression," which they defined as "dealing with the quality of emotional relationship between supervisor and subordinate" (p. 259). Closer examination of the Hatfield & Huseman (1982, p. 352) survey reveals information that may explain this surprising finding: The two items that contributed most strongly to the "expression" factor (which were reverse scored) were: "My supervisor criticizes my work in front of others," (.79) and "My supervisor ridicules or makes fun of me" (.83) These items clearly reflect disconfirming communication as discussed earlier. The third item that contributed to this factor (.56) was a positive item that reflected, according to my study, confirming communication as follows: "My supervisor expresses sympathy to me when something unfortunate happens in my personal life." When perceptual congruence for each of the three factors (coordination, participation and expression) was correlated with work, supervisor and general satisfaction, the strongest correlations were for the "expression" (confirming/disconfirming communication) factor. Although the more current study by Yrle et al. (2003) found that no significant correlation was found between "expression" and relationship quality, I speculate that this surprising finding may have occurred as a result of combining the confirming and disconfirming items in one factor, or the fact that relationship quality may have been a moderator rather than a mediator as hypothesized by the researchers.

4.4 DISAGREEMENT CONTEXT AND EPISODE GOALS

As my research question explores the impact of disconfirming managerial communication on employee felt emotion, I need to study contexts in which disconfirming communication is fairly likely to occur: One of these contexts is the

disagreement discussion. Therefore, in this section I explore the literature concerning the impact of communication *topic* on employee emotions, paying specific attention to whether or not the topic includes disagreement. First, I discuss a few of the problems associated with defining the communication episode or "situation" and then I focus on the importance of goal structures during communication episodes, expanding on how "goal relevance" and "goal congruence" are important for both defining social situations, and for understanding the process of emotion elicitation. First, I critique studies of managerial communication as emotional triggers using a model that proposes five different ways that goal relevance and congruence are appraised. Then, I review a four-part model of goal structures during communication episodes, to argue that an employee's negative emotions are likely to be elicited by disconfirming managerial communication, even when there is no disagreement, but that the amount of disconfirming managerial communication, as well as the intensity of employee negative emotions, are likely to be higher in a disagreement context.

4.4.1 Introduction

While a communication episode or situation may be clear to the individuals involved, defining "social situations" has not been straightforward. Argyle, Furnham & Graham (1981) defined a social situation as; "the sum of features of a social occasion that impinge on an individual person" (p.3). However, they recognize that this definition is problematic because first, the 'situation" being researched could actually have been set in motion or reacted to, well before the actual event, and second, it could have been set in place by a person's goals, expectations and/or emotions. Miller, Cody, & McLaughlin, (1994) also point out the inherent difficulties concerning meaning and perspective when trying to define a particular episode, as it depends on "the individual's perspective, activated cognitions, and knowledge structures (p. 164). Thus while one employee might view a conversation about a scheduling conflict (for example) as a disagreement, another might view the same event as simply a discussion or conversation. In addition to definitional issues, questions pertaining to

the influence of a specific social situation on a person's behaviour are very complex and have been studied in many different fields of psychology including personality theory, symbolic interactionism, "Ethogenics", environmental and ecological psychology, and experimental psychology (Argyle et al 1981).

According to Miller et al (1994) the links between situation perception and *communicative behaviour* have been found to be influenced by a large variety of variables such as goals, intimacy, dominance, rights to persuade, personal benefits, perceived resistance, relational consequences, and situation apprehension. To differentiate communicative outcomes in differing situations, they proposed a four-part model consisting of a) goals, b) plans and strategies, c) beliefs, and d) resources, emphasizing that goal structures, in particular, stand out as very useful to: "understanding persons, situations, relationships and social interactions" (p. 171). Surprisingly, even though topic context is assumed to be important for interpersonal communications research, with the exception of the interpersonal communication *competence* research stream (i.e. Spitzberg & Brunner, 1991), "few studies have attempted to specify a theory of context" (Spitzberg, 2006, p. 638). Berger (2002) concurs, and considers that communication theories have tended to ignore variations in "activity types" and have focused scant attention on "how individuals coordinate actions with verbal behaviour to achieve goals" (p. 186). However, Argyle et al (1981) have proposed a "functional" theory of situations, in which goal structures are key predictors of behaviour and this approach appears to be prevalent in the way communications researchers have defined conversation topic as a contextual variable (Miller, et al 1994; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). This theory is discussed in depth in the next section.

Goal structures and conflicts are also critical determinants of emotion elicitation. Surprisingly, however, the conflict literature has developed with an almost complete dearth of formal consideration of emotions, and even where emotions have been considered in the conflict literature, they are more likely to have been examined as "a fallout of conflict" (Nair, 2008, p. 368.). Therefore, I focus this review of the literature on two particular aspects of goal structures; First, goal incongruence as an emotion

elicitor, and second, the impact of conversation topic, specifically disagreement, on episode goals. In this way I contend that disagreement does make a difference, both because the likelihood of goal incongruence is higher for both manager and employee, and because the manager is likely to exhibit higher levels of disconfirming communication during such disagreements. However, I also argue that goal relevance and incongruence will be present for the employee when the manager uses disconfirming managerial communication, even when *no* disagreement exists.

4.4.2 Emotion Intensity as a Function of Goal Relevance/Congruence in Communication Episodes

As discussed in chapter two, emotions are triggered to the extent that events are experienced as 'goal-relevant' and/or 'incongruent'. According to Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) Affective Events Theory, the emotion elicitation process usually begins with a primary appraisal of an episode which considers two dimensions: "goal relevance," which pertains to the person's desires, and "goal congruence," an appraisal of whether the event is helpful or harmful to those concerns or desires (Lazarus, 1991). Scherer (2005) also argued that emotions can be utilized as "relevance detectors," in which the intensity of the resulting emotion will depend on whether or not the triggering event is appraised as important or relevant (p. 701). Similarly, Moors, (2010) explains that goal incongruence is triggered when there is a mismatch between "specific classes of constellations of stimuli and goals" (p. 15). A more complex view of this emotion appraisal process is offered by Roseman, Spindel and Jose (1990) who argue that goal congruence and relevance can be appraised in five different ways. These include first, "motivation" focusing on whether an individual is expecting the episode to be punishing or rewarding. The second, called "situational" reflects whether the aforementioned motivational state (reward or punishment) is actually present or absent in the episode. The third, called "probability" pertains to the (un)certainty of the outcome, while the fourth called "legitimacy" pertains to whether or not a negative outcome is deserved in the situation. Finally, "attribution" considers the question of agency and whether the

outcome is perceived to be caused by circumstances, the other person, or the self (p. 899).

When this model is applied to the studies of managerial communication as emotional triggers, which were reviewed in chapter two, the insults, protests, justifications and venting identified by Waldron & Krone (1991), could be viewed as appraisals pertaining to legitimacy states, appraisals of punishments, and appraisals related to agency. In Fiebig and Kramer's (1998) study, the most common negative events were related to being questioned or challenged due to a trust violation, implying again that agency and legitimacy appraisals were involved. Finally, Dasborough (2006) found that employees' negative emotions were triggered by a range of behaviours including: leaders' arrogance, failure to inform them of important issues, being spoken to in a rude manner, lack of empowerment, lack of reward and recognition, and lack of accountability. In considering these, it is evident that all five of the aforementioned appraisal types are present. It is also notable from these examples, that while many of the emotional triggers imply disagreement (i.e. justifications), others do not (i.e. *the* leader's arrogance).

4.4.3 Goal Structures and Conversation Topic

Graham, Argyle, and Furnham (1980) conducted an influential study to explore variations in goal importance for different types of communication episodes and dyadic roles. They defined a communicative goal as: "a state of affairs, whether a bodily or mental state, behaviour of self or others, or condition of the physical world, which is consciously desired, or is pursued without awareness, and gives satisfaction when attained" (p. 345-346). In their series of three studies, students were asked to indicate the (hypothetical) importance of listed goals in three different situations: A small party (hostess and guest), in a situation where a person was complaining to his or her neighbour about a constant noisy disturbance (complainer and complainee), and a situation in which a nurse was nursing a patient (either at home or in the hospital) who was physically unwell. Their results indicated that the three superordinate goal types of:

a) social acceptance/developing relationships, b) own well-being, and c) achieving a specific task goal, were generalizable across topic contexts. Interestingly, these findings lend support to Berger's (2005) recent proposal that while contextual variability probably does exist; "Some of the contextual variability may be more apparent than real." Coupland, Coupland, Giles and Henwood (1991) in their study on intergenerational discourse, refined the labels for the three superordinate goal types proposed by Graham et al (1980) referring to them as: identity goals, relational goals and instrumental goals (p. 80). Applying this model to the aforementioned findings of Waldron and Krone (1991), Fiebig and Kramer (1998) and Dasborough (2006), is clear that while specific task (instrumental) goals were involved in some cases (i.e. failure to inform them of important issues, and lack of empowerment) in other cases it seems that emotions were triggered through perceived incongruence of identity/own well-being and/or social acceptance/relational goals (i.e. insults, being questioned or challenged due to a trust violation, leaders' arrogance, and being spoken to in a rude manner.)

I argue that disconfirming managerial communication will be related to employee negative emotion even when no apparent disagreement exists because, by definition, disconfirming communication is *that which does not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant* (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981). I speculate that disconfirming managerial communication will trigger relevant employee goal structures, at least of the self-identity type, and probably of the relational type as well.

4.4.4 Higher Incidence of Dominance-Persuasion Goals and Potential "Face Threat" during Disagreements

In the aforementioned study by Graham et al (1980), one goal-type, called "dominance-persuasion" only became important during the complaint situation, which I liken to a situation that contains disagreement. Applied to my study, I argue that while disconfirming managerial communication is predicted to elicit employee negative

emotion whether or not a disagreement exists, when the communication *does* involve a complaint or disagreement, additional "dominance-persuasion" goal types becomes more likely for both manager and employee. Indeed, as discussed in Section 7.3, emotions researchers use "areas of current disagreement" as one of the main methods for emotion elicitation among dyads (Roberts et al 2007).

From the employee perspective, disagreement implies a more complex goal structure, over and above self, relationship and instrumental goals, and therefore higher intensity of elicited negative emotions. For example, "dominance-persuasion" goal conflicts are implied by Dasborough's (2006) aforementioned findings that employees negative emotions were triggered by lack of empowerment, lack of reward and recognition, and lack of accountability. An alternate view, however, is that when managerial communication is disconfirming, in addition to the self-identity and relational goals being triggered, it is likely that that dominance-persuasion goals are also in play, even if there are no disagreements because power differentials are embedded in everyday speech and interaction rituals, especially when power is unevenly distributed as it is with managers and their employees (Morand, 2000, 1996).

From the manager's perspective, not only can one assume a greater incidence of "dominance-persuasion" goal types becoming important during disagreements with employees, but I speculate that during disagreement discussions with employees, managers are likely to use higher levels of disconfirming communication, just as married couples use more disgust, contempt, belligerence, domineering, anger, fear/tension, defensiveness, whining, sadness, stonewalling in their communication when discussing areas of common disagreement (Gottman & Driver, 2005). To support this idea, I use "politeness" theory and the notion of face-threatening acts discussed earlier in chapter three.

Goffman (1967) and Brown and Levinson (1978) suggest that two universal rules of "politeness" exist to balance the often competing demands for both clear communication, and minimal face threat, i.e. to save the face of the other by being polite. Politeness in this context means "phrasing things in such a way as to take into

consideration the feelings of others" (Morand, 2000, p. 237). Face threatening acts (FTAs) include contradicting, disagreeing and interrupting. I argue that, by definition, disagreements create more possibilities for threatening the face of the employee, thereby requiring greater interpersonal communication skill, on the part of the manager, to reconcile the competing goals. Barbara O'Keefe (1991) defines communicative goal reconciliation as the ways in which subsidiary goals are traded off and addressed in a message. Applied to my study, when reduction of face threat is traded off at the expense of clarity, the communication can be categorized as less disconfirming. When clarity is traded off at the expense of face threat, the communication can be categorized as more disconfirming.

4.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, I explored the influence of relationship quality and communication topic on interpersonal communication behaviour and its emotional consequences. To explore the influence of the *relational context* on managerial communication and emotion, I argued that in order to properly interpret the antecedents, behaviours and/or consequences of interpersonal communication one must understand the type and quality of the relationship between the communicators. I provided evidence for this claim and suggested that within the emotions at work literature very little attention has been paid to the relational context for managerial communication. Then I explained leader-member exchange theory which is my framework for exploring relationship quality as a moderator in my study. Using this framework I further developed my argument in favour of a relational communications perspective for managerial communication, by providing a critical overview of the sub-set of findings that pertained specifically to *both* leader-member relationship quality and managerial communication. Finally, I argued that while positive outcomes from high quality leader-member relationships are evident, it is difficult to assess whether

relationship quality is actually an outcome, an antecedent and/or a moderator of leader behaviour on employee reactions and performance.

To explore the impact of *topic context* and disagreement on managerial communication and emotion, I reiterated the importance of goal structures for both defining social situations and for understanding the processes by which emotions are elicited. First, I explored a model that suggests five different ways that goal relevance and congruence can be appraised, and I used it to critique the few studies that explored managerial communication as an emotional trigger. Then I reviewed a model that identified self-identity, relationship and the task itself as three superordinate goal types that generalized across a variety of different social situations. I argued that at the very least, disconfirming managerial communication would trigger employee negative felt emotions through their self-identity goals, and that it would probably affect the relational goal structures as well, even if no disagreement was present. I went on to argue, however, that the disagreement context, would probably result in higher levels of employee negative felt emotion due to additional incongruence or conflicts in "dominance-persuasion" goal structures for both managers and employees. I also speculated that the disagreement context would lead to higher levels of disconfirming managerial communication behaviour, due to increased possibilities for threatening the face of the employees, thereby requiring greater goal reconciliation skill on the part of the managers.

5. THE INFLUENCE OF TRAIT NEGATIVE AFFECT AND EMOTION REGULATION ON EMOTION EPISODES

In this chapter, I refer back to Weiss & Cropanzano's (1998) Affective Events Theory (See *Figure 2.1*) and expand on the model's proposition that the relationship between emotional job events and affective reactions is moderated by individual dispositions. I then explore two individual dispositions that have been found to influence the subjective experience of negative emotion: negative affectivity and emotion regulation.

5.1 TRAIT POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECT

In chapter two, I defined "emotion" and distinguished it from the related concepts of "mood" and "affect". I explained that researchers adopt a *primary* emotions perspective when they are interested in mood and/or affective personality traits, and a dimensions (*discrete* emotions) perspective when they are interested in emotional triggers. Up to this point in my literature review, I have been taking a *discrete emotions* perspective because I have been interested in managerial communication as an emotional trigger. However, because a great deal of research suggests that an individual's affective disposition and personality can: "Enter into the chain of emotion generation and emotion consequences," in multiple ways (Weiss & Kurek, 2003, p. 132), I now take *primary* emotions perspective to explore trait positive affect and trait negative affect, also called Trait PA and Trait NA. First, I define trait PA and Trait NA, and distinguish them from the aforementioned concepts of emotion, mood and general affect. Then, I explore the difficulties in distinguishing state from trait affect, and review Weiss and Kurek's (2003) model that proposes a number of possible ways that personality might intervene in the emotion generating process.

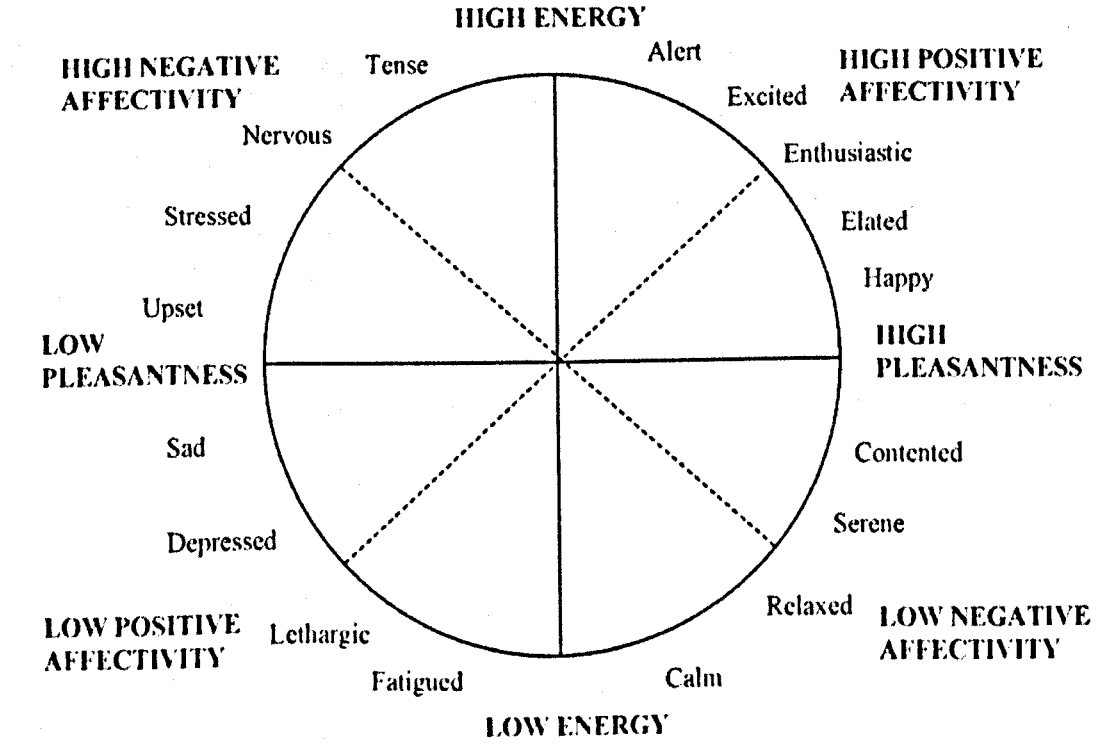
Finally, I expand upon the underlying reactivity constructs called the behavioural activation system (BAS), and the behavioural inhibition system (BIS), and

review the research that has found positive and negative affect to be moderators of felt emotion.

5.1.1 Defining Trait Positive Affect and Trait Negative Affect

In chapter two, I defined *affect* as the overarching term that encompasses short-term feeling states, as well as the more stable personality-driven traits, or tendencies to feel and act in certain ways. Researchers interested in affect tend to take a primary perspective of emotions. Central to this perspective is the *Circumplex Model* which is a two-dimensional map of the affective domain shown in *Figure 5.1.* Emotions are placed on the model in the two dimensions of *pleasantness-unpleasantness* and *energy-activation.* The pleasantness-unpleasantness dimension is also known as hedonic tone, and the energy-activation dimension has been called excitement-calm, affect intensity, activation, engagement, and arousal (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

FIGURE 5.1
The Circumplex Model of Affect, (Barsade & Gibson, 2007, p. 39)



According to Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988), Trait NA, refers to an individual's tendency to experience:

> "Subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of mood states... with low NA being a state of calmness and serenity" (Watson et al 1988, p. 1063)

While high Trait NAs are more likely to report, for example, feeling angry, low Trait NAs are more likely to endorse; "low energy feeling states" (p. 837) that connote the absence of negative emotion. Also, when viewed along the dimensions of valence and arousal, the NA dimension is; "anchored by a cluster of negatively valenced, high-arousal emotions such as nervous and angry, on one end and by positively valenced, low-arousal emotions, such as calm and relaxed, on the other end (Seo, Feldman-Barrett & Jin, 2008, p. 23). Controversy exists as to whether positive and negative affect are orthogonal, however many researchers have adopted a general conclusion that, while they are distinct, they are sometimes correlated (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

5.1.2 State and Trait Affect, and Personality's Influence on Reactivity to Events

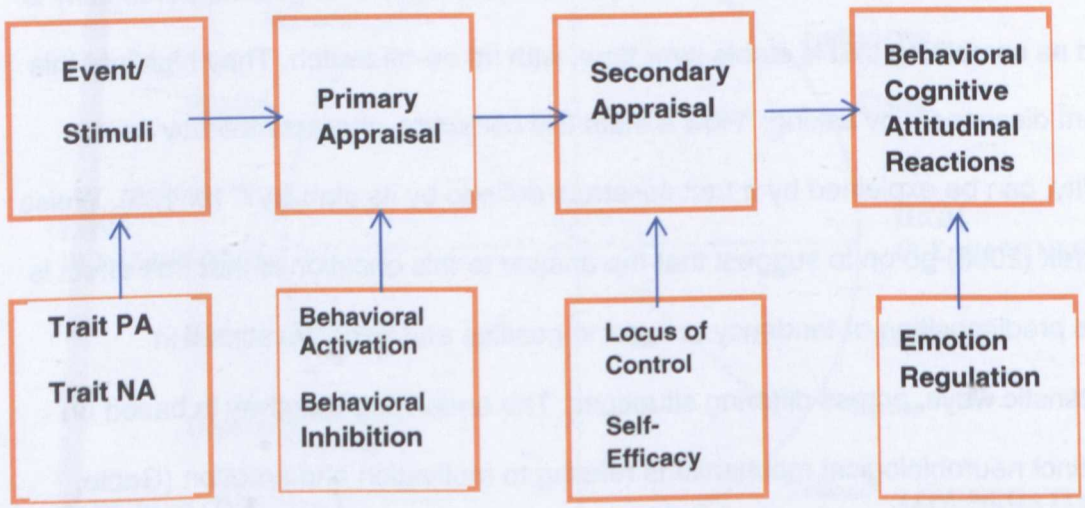
Weiss & Kurek (2003) explain the difficulties that arise when trying to make a distinction between *trait* positive and negative affect, and *state* positive and negative affect. They argue that while affect is a state, and inherently changeable, personality is defined as something that is stable over time, with no on-off switch. They highlight this apparent disconnect by asking: "How a state like construct, characterized by its variability, can be explained by a trait construct defined by its stability?" (p. 125). Weiss and Kurek (2003) go on to suggest that the answer to this question is that trait affect is a stable predisposition or tendency to *react* to positive and negative stimuli in characteristic ways, across differing situations. The underlying reactivity is based on two distinct neurobiological mechanisms relating to motivation and emotion (Gable, Reis & Elliot, 2000). One system, called the behavioural activation system (BAS), is responsible for approach behaviour, and the second, called the behavioural inhibition

system (BIS), is responsible for avoidance behaviour. The BAS, or *appetitive* system responds to signals of reward and non-punishment, and the BIS, or *aversive* system responds to signals of punishment and non-reward. Watson et al. (1999) describe the BIS as promoting a; "vigilant scanning of the environment for potential threats" (p. 830).

5.1.3 Personality Influences on Emotion Episodes

In chapter two, I discussed how emotions are viewed as episodes unfolding over time, involving interrelated, synchronized changes in five organismic subsystems. I also briefly discussed the findings, using Affective Events Theory as the overall framework, to demonstrate that individual dispositions moderate this unfolding process. Weiss & Kurek (2003) have built on this notion (using the stimulus-organism-response model of Larsen, Diener & Lucas, 2002), adding personality moderators to the emotion-generating process. As shown in *Figure 5.2,* Weiss & Kurek (2003) argue that aspects of an individual's personality might influence the emotion episode at one or more of four possible times as follows:

FIGURE 5.2
Possible Personality Influences on the Emotion-Generating Process
(Weiss & Kurek, 2003, p. 135)



First, an individual's trait positive or negative affectivity might influence the *actual events* themselves. For example, managers might use more disconfirming communication with high Trait NA employees because these individuals tend to have a more negative demeanour, and are less pleasant to be around, causing the manager to communicate in a more disconfirming manner. Second, the model suggests that personality might influence an individual's *reactivity* to events, in accordance with the BIS and BAS model – this means that an individual's primary appraisal of an emotional event might be influenced by their Trait NA and PA. For example, an employee with high Trait NA might appraise a manager's communication as more disconfirming because he or she is more sensitive to negative stimuli than someone with low Trait NA. Third, personality traits such as *locus of control*, *self-efficacy* and *self-esteem* may be relevant during secondary appraisal, (or meaning analysis), discussed earlier in chapter two. This would mean that, for example, an individual with high self-esteem would interpret a manager's communication as less disconfirming that an individual with low self-esteem. Fourth, the way an individual tends to *regulate his or her emotion* might influence his or her behaviours (i.e., whether or not the emotion is expressed or suppressed), in addition to the way the individual cognitively appraises the situation and actually experiences the emotion. Emotion regulation and the research that has related to the experience and expression of emotion will be discussed in more depth in the second part of this chapter.

5.1.4 Research on the Influence of Trait Negative Affect

Research has revealed that, generally speaking, high Trait NA is related to neuroticism, self-reported stress, and poor coping. Also, high Trait NA individuals tend to accentuate negative aspects of a situation, and experience more distress than low Trait NA individuals (Brief, Burke, George, Robinson & Webster, 1988). High Trait NA represents the tendency to avoid aversive stimuli as part of the underlying behavioural inhibition system discussed earlier (Watson, Wiese, Vaidya & Tellegen, 1999). By contrast, high Trait PA is related to extroversion, social activity and satisfaction

(Watson et al, 1988). More recently, Barsade & Gibson's (2007) review of the literature identified a strong relationship between Trait PA and a number of measures of work performance such as higher sales, pay, and creativity, and lower turnover. Results for decision-making outcomes have been mixed since some studies suggest that high Trait NA leads to more effortful processing, while others suggest that high Trait PA improves decision-making performance.

Gable et al (2000) in a diary study, found that Trait NA had a moderating influence on the reactions of individuals to emotional triggers. They examined both individual, and between-person differences in reactivity to positive and negative events in their everyday lives and found that people with high Trait NA tended to be more reactive to negative events, than people with low Trait NA. Building on this study, Grandey et al (2002) asked employees to complete surveys at two points in time and to complete an event-contingent diary (with instructions to describe any event which made them feel strongly while at work) over a 2 week period. They found a significant relationship between Trait NA and overall negative emotions ($r = .38$, $p < .01$). They also created three composite negative emotions variables for anger (angry, frustrated and disgusted), sadness (disappointed, unhappy, depressed) and anxiety (worried, embarrassed), and found that NA had the strongest correlation with the anxiety composite ($r = .49$, $p < .01$) and the weakest with angry ($r = .26$, $p < .06$). Recently, Dimotakis, Scott & Koopman (2011) conducted an experience sampling study to determine how trait positive and negative affectivity might influence an individual's reactions to interactions at work. Using hierarchical linear modeling, they found that individual reactions tended to be valence-symmetric such that positive interactions were related to positive (0.25, $p < .01$) but not negative affect (-.10, NS), and negative interactions were more strongly related to negative (.32 $p < .01$) than positive affect (-.15, $p < .05$). They also used the "undoing hypothesis" from psychology to test their hypothesis that positive affect can; "correct or mitigate the effects of negative emotion," (p. 574) in predicting job satisfaction. They did find a significant interaction (.15, $p < .05$)

that demonstrated that the negative relationship between negative affect and job satisfaction was weaker when positive affect was high.

5.1.5 The Trait Negative Affect Gap

In spite of the fact that high Trait NA has been associated with the tendency to accentuate negative emotions and reactions in a number of different studies, none of the studies that explored emotional reactions to managerial communication included Trait NA as a mediator or moderator.

5.2. EMOTION REGULATION

As discussed earlier, emotion regulation has been suggested as a dispositional moderator of emotion episodes. In this section, I distinguish emotion regulation from coping or mood regulation and explore the various ways that emotion regulation has been understood. Then I provide a brief overview of what we know about emotion regulation in the workplace, followed by a more detailed overview of Gross' Process Model of emotion regulation, because it is the one I have chosen to follow. Finally I will review the research that focuses on the impact of individual differences within emotion regulation.

5.2.1 Approaches to Understanding and Defining Emotion Regulation

Koole (2009) offers a prototype definition of emotion regulation as: "a set of processes whereby people seek to redirect the spontaneous flow of their emotions" (p. 6). She proposes that the various emotion regulation models can be classified according to: 1) which *human systems* are targeted (i.e. attention, knowledge and/or the body), and 2) which *functions* the emotion regulation serves, (i.e. satisfying hedonic needs, supporting goal pursuits, and/or supporting personality functioning).

A second way of classifying the various emotion regulation theories is to explore their roots. Current conceptions of emotion regulation emerge from either the psychoanalytic

tradition, or the stress and coping tradition (Gross, 1998b). Within the psychoanalytic tradition, emotion regulation was called "Ego Defense" and was thought to take two forms that were mostly unconscious: First, so-called *reality-based anxiety* regulation was thought to manifest as situational avoidance, resulting from a trauma in which the; "situational demands overwhelm the ego" (Gross, 1998b, p. 274). Second, *id and superego-based anxiety* regulation was thought to manifest as impulse control. By contrast, research within the stress and coping tradition has focused on conscious coping processes, and on the situational demands that trigger the emotion regulation, rather than on the characteristics of the individual. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) define coping as; "cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Gross, 1998b, p. 274). Gross (1998b) distinguishes coping from emotion regulation by explaining that while coping is focused on the *down regulation* of negative emotions, emotion regulation also includes the possibility for *up-regulating* positive emotions. Coping researchers have distinguished between *problem-focused coping*, in which an individual is trying to solve a particular stressor or problem, and *emotion-focused coping* where the goal is to decrease a negative emotional experience (Gross 1998b, p. 274). This emotion-focused type of coping is similar to emotion regulation however, while emotion-focused coping research has been more concerned with altering the subjective experience of emotion, contemporary emotion regulation research (especially those working with the process model) is interested in altering both the subjective experience of emotion and emotion behaviour or responses.

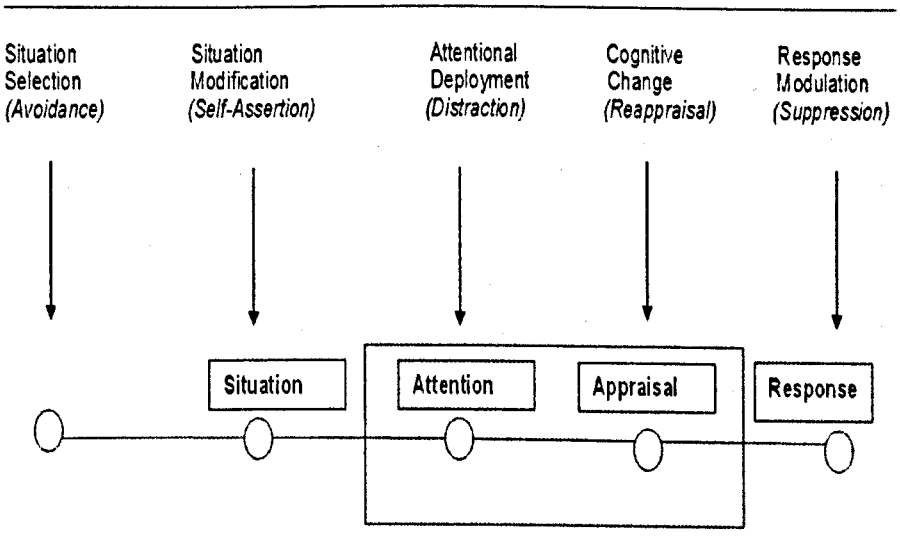
5.2.2 The Process Model of Emotion Regulation

Gross' (1998b) process model of emotion regulation fits the componential view of emotion that I am using, and also fits well with Weiss & Kurek's (2003) model that demonstrates how personality intervenes in the unfolding of the emotional episode. Gross defines emotion regulation as follows: "*The processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience*

and express their emotions" (p. 275). Similarly, Thompson (1994) defined emotion regulation as: "all the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features" (p. 271), which implies that "reactions" includes both the experience and expression of emotion. These definitions are important to my work because it references the experience, *and* expression of emotion, which includes mood regulation (the experience of emotion) as well as the possibility for up-regulation of positive emotions, discussed in the next section as *emotional labour*. Gross' model has been broadly adopted across the fields of developmental, neurological, clinical, and I/O psychology, as well as in organizational behaviour research (Lawrence et al., 2011).

Gross (1998a) takes a response-tendency approach to emotion regulation, proposing that emotion regulation strategies can be classified according to when they come into play in the process of emotion generation. Gross' full model (Gross & Thompson, 2007) suggests five points in the emotion-generative process that are reactive to negative emotional stimuli, as depicted in *Figure 5.3.*

Figure 5.3: Process Model of Emotion Regulation (John & Gross, 2007, p. 352, Gross 1998b p. 282)



Situation selection is the first point and it involves whether one approaches or avoids particular places, people or situations as a way to regulate ones emotions (Gross, 1998b). An example of situation selection is to take a longer route at work to avoid bumping in to one's boss. The second point in the model is *situation modification*, which means that one has found oneself in a potentially emotion-eliciting situation and chooses to modify the situation to make it less emotional. Situations vary in complexity and in the capacity that exists for modification (Gross, 1998b). Gross & Thompson (2007) describe one example of a modifiable situation as finding oneself, as a child, in the chair of a terrifying barber, and then modifying the situation by requesting to wait for a less frightening one. The third point in the model is called *attentional deployment* and entails re-directing one's attention away from the emotional trigger through *distraction* or *concentration*. Distraction means that the person focuses his or her attention on the non-emotional aspects of the situation, or moves his or her attention completely away from the immediate situation (Gross, 1998b). Concentration could be on a hobby, a sport or one's work. This means that the person chooses a task to absorb him or herself in, in order to draw a different strong emotion into focus, thereby deploying attention away from a negative emotion. According to Koole's (2009) aforementioned classification system, these first three steps would be targeting the "attention" system, and the psychological function being performed could be either need- or goal-oriented. The fourth emotion regulation strategy in the process model is called *cognitive reappraisal*. This is a type of cognitive adjustment that involves;

> Changing how we appraise the situation we are in, to alter its emotional significance, either by shifting how we think about the situation or about our capacity to manage the demands it poses. (Gross & Thompson, 2007, p. 14)

Similar types of cognitive change include those "classical psychological defenses such as denial, isolation and intellectualization" (Gross, 1998b, p. 284) as well as "downward social comparison," which involves comparing one's situation with a worse one, and "cognitive reframing," which occurs when one experiences failure with one goal, and therefore reframes it as less of a failure, with respect to another goal. Koole (2009)

classifies this stage in the model as targeted towards the "knowledge" system that serves the function of goal pursuit. She explains that: "Cognitive reappraisal can inhibit the experience of unwanted emotions, although it does not consistently decrease psycho-physiological arousal" (p. 23). The fifth and final strategy is called *response modulation* or *(expressive) suppression* and it involves; "reducing emotion-expressive behaviour once the individual is already in an emotional state" (John & Gross, 2004, p. 1302). Expressive suppression differs from the preceding four steps as it occurs after the response tendencies have been initiated. Gross (1998b) discusses methods (such as drugs, exercise, alcohol and relaxation) as commonly used to regulate the physiological aspects of emotion, but argues that: "the most common form of emotion regulation, however, may be regulating emotion-expressive behaviour" (Gross, 1998b, p. 285). Koole (2009) classifies this last step in the process as targeted to the body, giving an example that an individual might try to keep a straight face while telling a lie.

5.2.3 Emotion Regulation in the Workplace

Emotion regulation in the workplace has primarily focused on the ways service employees experience and regulate their emotions when dealing with *customers.* Arlie Hochschild (1983) coined the term "emotional labour" which she defined as: "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7). She distinguished "surface acting," trying to control emotional *expression* in line with the institutional display rules in the organization, from "deep acting," the effort it takes to align one's inner feelings with desired emotional expression (Liu, Prati, Perrewe & Brymer, 2010). When Grandy (2000) compared Gross' process model of emotion regulation with the concepts of surface and deep acting, she equated deep acting with both "attentional deployment" and "cognitive reappraisal," explaining that "the difference is that attentional deployment focuses upon changing the focus of personal thoughts, and cognitive change focuses on changing appraisals of the external

situation" (p. 99). She also equated "surface acting" with "expressive suppression" in the process model, arguing that in both, the target of the emotion regulation is the facial and bodily display, not the subjective experience of the emotion (i.e., Grandey, 2003; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey et al 2002).

Glaso & Einarsen, (2008) found that leaders and followers suppress and fake their emotions during their interactions with each other (not just with customers) so that "emotion regulation is a prominent feature of leader-follower relationships" (p. 492). They found that follower negative emotions such as disappointment, uncertainty, worry and annoyance were typically suppressed, while positive emotions such as enthusiasm, gladness, interest and calmness were generally expressed or faked. Findings indicated that leaders regulated their emotions more than followers, and that both followers and leaders expressed their emotions more often than suppressing or faking them. However, among followers, 76% reported having faked emotions and 89% reported having suppressed emotions when interacting with their direct supervisor. They also found that follower suppression correlated strongly and negatively with their perceptions of their relationship quality with their manager (-.47, $p < .001$), but that this correlation was much weaker (-.20, p. <.01) when analyzed from the perspective of the leader.

5.2.4 Individual Differences in Emotion Regulation

Gross' early studies (i.e., Gross, 1998a) involved experiments in which participants (plus a control group) watched a disgust-eliciting (amputation) film under one of two conditions: half were asked to reappraise and "*adopt a detached and unemotional attitude as they watched the film*" (p. 227) while the other half were asked to suppress their disgust, i.e., behave in a way that an observer would not know that they were feeling anything. Participants were videotaped and their physiological responses were monitored. Data was collected on their expressive behaviour, their

subjective experience and their physiology. Afterward, the emotion regulation groups were compared to each other and to the control group. Since my study is focused on the *experience* of emotion, I have explored this information thoroughly. Participants rated their disgust (which was embedded in distractor items) before and after viewing the film and were also asked how they had felt during the film. Gross (1998b) found that participants who were led to cognitively reappraise had lesser increases in the experience of disgust than the control group, while participants who had been led to suppress did not. These findings supported Gross' hypothesis that cognitive reappraisal, a more antecedent-focused response, lowers the subjective experience of negative emotion, while expressive suppression, which is more response-focused, does not.

As a next step, in order to measure habitual individual differences in emotion regulation (rather than responses to experimentally manipulated differences), Gross & John (2003) designed a survey instrument, called the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire or ERQ. This questionnaire, like their experiments, was limited to the last two steps in their model, those of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. In their study using this survey instrument, John & Gross (2004) found a small, but significant negative correlation between cognitive reappraisal and emotional stability ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$), but found no significant correlation between emotional stability and expressive suppression. Another correlate of suppression showed that males reported suppressing significantly more than females however no significant gender differences were found for reappraisal. Gross & John (2003) hypothesized that cognitive reappraisers would report more experiences of positive emotion, and less experiences of negative emotion, and that expressive suppressors would experience less positive emotion overall. For the question of whether expressive suppressors would experience more or less negative emotion, they hypothesized that suppression would either increase negative felt emotion or have no impact on the subjective

experience. Participants were asked about their general mood (using the PANAS construct) and how much they generally experienced six positive emotions (i.e., joy, love) and six negative emotions (i.e., sadness, anger), and their responses were correlated with their self-reported emotion regulation scores. Findings revealed that cognitive reappraisal was related to a greater experience of positive emotion, and to lesser negative-emotion experience, confirming the experimental work. Expressive suppression showed a negative link to positive-emotion experience, as expected, but contrary to the experimental studies, expressive suppression showed a positive link to negative emotions. Based on these findings, I decided that it would be important to include emotion regulation as a dispositional moderator of the effect of disconfirming managerial communication on an employee's negative felt emotion.

5.2.5 The Emotion Regulation Gap

Review of the literature suggests that *expressive suppressors* experience more *negative* emotion, and *cognitive reappraisers* experience less negative emotion in response to emotional job events. While managerial communication has been identified as a significant trigger of employee emotions (discussed in chapter two), none of the aforementioned studies have measured the employees' emotion regulation strategy as a possible moderator.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, my goals are to summarize my conclusions from my literature review, and to lay out the specific hypotheses that I have developed to explore my research question.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

In order to answer my research question, I have enriched and expanded upon workplace emotions research, by borrowing from the interpersonal communications and leader-member exchange (LMX) literatures. Specifically, I have critically reviewed the relevant research to identify the various ways that workplace emotions, interpersonal communication, relationship quality and emotion regulation have been understood and studied. Based on this review, I decided to take a *relational communications* perspective for my independent variable, defining it as follows: "*Managerial interpersonal communication is the process of creating social relationships between at least two people by acting in concert with one another.*" For my dependent variable (employee felt emotions), I decided to take a *discrete* emotions perspective, using Affective Events Theory as my *componential* view, (componential) conceptual framework. I defined workplace emotions as being elicited by goal-relevant work events that trigger mental and physical processes that lead to affective reactions. I then reviewed psychological, communication and organizational research, to locate the various constructs that specifically addressed negative managerial interpersonal communication, and I discovered five of them: verbal aggressiveness, position-centered communication, face threatening communication, defensive communication, and disconfirming communication. With the relational communication perspective as

my guide, I selected the disconfirming communication construct to address my research question.

My review of the leader behaviour literature and interpersonal communication literature led me to the following conclusions on which my hypotheses have been based:

1. Emotions are episodes, triggered by specific events and consisting of a number of unfolding components. This results in affective reactions which then influence individual behaviour, and organizational performance.
2. Managerial communication is an important trigger of negative employee emotions at work and negative emotions have more impact on employee mood than positive emotions.
3. More fine-grained descriptions are needed for specific managerial interpersonal communication behaviours that act as emotional triggers for employees.
4. Interpersonal communication is very context-dependent, and the quality of the relationship between communicators is a key context that needs to be understood.
5. Of the available constructs within the interpersonal communications literature, the confirming and disconfirming communication construct is the most appropriate for my study, because: a) it takes a *relational* communication perspective, and b) it contains fine-grained behavioural descriptions of both verbal and non-verbal communication, with no bias towards image, comforting or specific emotional outcomes.
6. An employee's emotional reaction to negative managerial interpersonal communication will depend, in part, on certain aspects of his or her personality. Two key personality variables that need to be taken into account are his or her trait negative affectivity, and whether he or she tends to regulate emotion using cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression.

In summary, my literature review revealed three gaps: 1) that the emotions at work literature studied managerial communication in a very global manner, with little behavioural description of what the manager said or how it was said; 2) none of these studies have explored how the quality of the manager-employee relationship might influence the impact of the manager's communication on the employees' emotions; and 3) even though both Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) Affective Events Theory model and Weiss & Kurek's (2003) model of the emotion-generating process (*Figure 5.2)* made strong theoretical arguments for the inclusion of dispositional variables as moderators, this line of research has not been pursued. I will now explore each of these three gaps in more detail and develop my hypotheses.

6.2 HYPOTHESES

In this section I argue that, although existing research makes a case for negative managerial communication as a significant trigger of employee emotions, this research treats communication in a very global manner, with little behavioural description of what was said or how it was said. I will then critique the five existing constructs of negative managerial communication and defend disconfirming communication as my choice for the independent variable in my hypotheses.

6.2.1 GAP 1: Managerial Communication is An Emotional Trigger for Employees but it has been Described Too Globally.

Existing research makes a case for managerial communication as a significant trigger of employee emotions: Waldron & Krone (1991) used open-ended questions to study employees at a correctional facility, and found that the most common trigger of negative emotions for employees was the supervisor, leading to reduced respect for the supervisor's professionalism and managerial capabilities. Building on this work, Fiebig & Kramer (1998) obtained questionnaires from employed adults who worked in a wide range of occupations. Exploring the job events that acted as catalysts for triggering emotions, they found that the events were typically communication

interactions. For negative emotions, the most common event (catalyst) was that of: "being questioned or challenged due to a trust violation, generating a feeling that "tacit relationship agreements were broken" (p. 552). When interaction partners were analyzed, 20% mentioned their supervisors, while 39% mentioned subordinates. Of the negative emotions experienced, anger was reported in 49% of the incidents, frustration in 25%, and helplessness in 20%. Basch & Fisher (2000) collected questionnaire data from employees at ten hotels in Australia and the Asia-Pacific region. They classified work events and their associated emotions, and discovered that management acts resulted in negative (not positive) emotions 93% of the time! In addition, 22% of job events that caused negative emotions, and 2% of job events causing positive emotions were attributed to acts of management. Of note is that acts of colleagues were also significant emotional triggers. Similarly, Grandey et al (2002), who collected diary and survey data from a small sample of students who also had paid employment, found that 32% of workplace anger incidents resulted from personal attacks or incivility by co-workers, while 43% were triggered by customers, and 25% were triggered by supervisors. Finally, Dasborough (2006,) using the critical incident interview technique (CIIT), asked both employees and their managers (separately), to recall workplace interactions during, or after which, they recalled having a strong positive or negative reaction. The most common leader behaviours that evoked negative emotions in employees tended to revolve around incidences of ineffective or inappropriate communication, and she found that communication with the manager evoked; *"more negative emotions than any other two behaviours combined"* (p. 172).

While the evidence just presented makes a case for negative managerial (supervisory) communication being a significant trigger of employee emotions, this research treats communication in *a very global manner*, with little behavioural description of what the manager said or how it was said. For example, Waldron & Krone (1991) in their aforementioned study, only went so far as to categorize the type of interactions as task-related (i.e. criticisms of work habits), general cultural (i.e.

learning that management is sexist), or relational (i.e. discover betrayal, supervisor abuses authority). They did, however conduct a content analysis of *repressed* messages (messages withheld by the employees during the emotional encounters), and these were identified as insults or compliments, protests or defenses, justifications or admissions and, venting or suppressing. Fiebig & Kramer (1998) also were more interested in whether employees decide to communicate, or suppress their emotions resulting from emotional job events, rather than in the specifics of the events themselves. As a result, they recorded what the employees actually expressed, but failed to describe what the verbal or non-verbal communication behaviours of the targets (i.e. the supervisors). By contrast, Grandey et al (2002) did code the emotional job events that triggered anger and pride at work, identifying for anger, the two global interpersonal orientation categories of; 1) personal attacks, which were defined as purposeful attacks on the participant's sense of self, and 2) incivility, defined as an event in which the participant has been "somehow slighted or ignored." (p. 47). One behavioural example was given for each category. The example for a personal attack by a supervisor was "I was told that the night before we (staff) did not do a good job closing (cleaning the restaurant) and we needed to do better, although we felt we did a very good job" (p.47). While Grandey et al. focused on a single negative emotion (anger), Dasborough's (2006) aforementioned study explored a broader set of negative emotions, however, again, the study's focus was on identifying the emotion-producing events and the emotional responses, rather than on describing the communication behaviours. She did however obtain some behavioural descriptions of negative managerial communications as follows:

> Employees felt annoyed they had not been made aware of important issues; in other cases, employees were spoken to in a rude manner, leading to anger toward the leader. Specific examples of communication leading to negative emotional responses in employees are, 'when he yelled at me I was terrified...' and 'after being so arrogant toward me... I was just enraged.' (p. 171-172)

Reviewing the interpersonal communications literature reveals five interpersonal communication models that focused on behaviour: *aggressive* communication, *face-threatening* communication, *defensive* communication, *position-centered* communication and *disconfirming* communication. Looking at these categories more closely, neither verbal aggressiveness (i.e., Rancer & Nicotera, 2007) nor face-threatening communication (i.e., Fairhurst, 2004) subscribed to the relational communication perspective. Although defensive communication (Stamp et al 1992) is solidly grounded in the relational perspective, it is limited to a specific outcome (defensiveness). In addition, person-oriented communication (Fix & Sias, 2006) is also considered relational, but its focus is narrow which an emphasis on comforting, and the provision of emotional support. Finally, disconfirming communication (Sieburg, 1976) was grounded in relational communication and could be applied to a variety of contexts and outcomes. Cissna & Sieburg (1981) define disconfirming communication as communication which does not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant, regarding them as inferior or not worthy of respect (Laing, 1961; Ellis, 2002). In addition to being grounded in the relational communication perspective, I decided to conceptualize managerial interpersonal communication using the disconfirmation construct for three reasons: 1) it offers depth and detail to describe three types of disconfirming communication behaviour as *indifferent*, *impervious* and *disqualifying* (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981); 2) research into disconfirming communication has shown that it can be reliably distinguished from confirming communication both by trained third party observers (Sieburg, 1969; Heineken, 1980; Garvin & Kennedy, 1986; Dailey, 2005), as well as through self-report (Dailey, 2005; Jacobs, 1973; Jablin, 1977); and 3) disconfirming communication has been correlated negatively with team effectiveness (Sieburg, 1969), performance satisfaction (Jacobs, 1973), psychiatric vs. normal individuals (Heineken, 1980), communication preferences (Jablin, 1977), and adolescent openness (Dailey, 2006). Remarkably, however, no studies to date have looked at the relationships between disconfirming communication and felt emotions. Based on this additional information, I propose Hypotheses 1 and 2 as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee negative felt emotion.

Hypothesis 2: Disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee positive felt emotion.

6.2.2 Gap 2: Relationship Context Not Taken into Account

I argue that while managerial communication has been identified as a significant trigger of employee emotions, especially negative emotions such as anger, not enough attention has been paid to the quality of the relationship between managers and their employees. Support for my argument comes from two different streams of research: Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and interpersonal (relational) communications research.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) researchers have identified that when managers have high quality relationships with their employees (a high degree of trust, respect and obligation), they tend to communicate more frequently (Kacmar, Witt et al 2003) and are more likely to report that their supervisors explained changes, and gave information in a two-way fashion (Yrle et al 2003). Employees in high quality relationships with their managers also show more upward openness, and job relevant communication, have greater value agreement and communication satisfaction, and display more upward maintenance communication (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In addition, when employees perceive good relationship quality with their managers, they are more likely to articulate, rather than hold back or displace their dissent (Kassing, 2000). While many of these LMX studies have explored managerial communication, and a few studies have explored the relationships between managerial communication and emotion, no studies have explored managerial communication, relationship quality and emotion simultaneously. Within the interpersonal communications field, a number of different research and conceptual streams provide support for the argument that relationship quality has to be considered as a critical contextual factor. First,

relationship context has been found to be important in marital, parent-adolescent and patient-physician interactions (i.e., Rogers & Escudero, 2004; Hess, 2000; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) as well as in the workplace (i.e., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Spitzberg & Cupach (2002) argue that relationship context is a key variable to understanding interpersonal communication, and that perceptions will vary depending upon whether the communicating dyads are friends, strangers, acquaintances, co-workers, or bosses and their subordinates (Spitzberg & Brunner, 1991). They have also demonstrated that differences emerge depending on the point in time at which the relationship is being observed (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007) as exemplified by the longitudinal studies of married couples (i.e., Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) which have demonstrated that certain types of interpersonal communications, such as disagreements and anger exchanges, while causing dissatisfaction in the short term, might not be harmful in the long run. More recently, Barry & Crant (2000) found that social perceptions of workplace relationships and interpersonal communication competence were often based on previous encounters and cognitions, and on attributions of motives influenced by earlier incidents. Strong support for the argument that relationship quality needs to be taken into account when exploring the emotional impact of managerial communication, comes from the work of Gail Fairhurst and her colleagues (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Fairhurst, 1993) who discovered that when managers have low relationship quality with their employees, their communication tends to be more antagonistic, adversarial and disconfirming.

The second stream of support for my argument comes from research conducted within the relational communications perspective (Watzlawick et al 1967). This perspective, initially called "Pragmatic," has gained prominence within the interpersonal communications field because it goes beyond the notion of communication as instrumental, emphasizing instead, those aspects of interpersonal communication that define or redefine relationships by transmitting the sender's attitudes towards the other person. Based on these identified gaps I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low.

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee positive felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low.

6.2.3 GAP 3: Affective Reactions Moderated By Individual Dispositions

I argue that in addition to failing to take relationship quality into account, the emotions researchers who studied managerial communication have not paid enough attention to individual dispositions as possible moderators of the relationship between emotional job events, and affective reactions. Support for my argument comes from the Affective Events Theory (AET) and from empirical research regarding dispositional influences on experienced emotions. Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) propose that individual dispositions moderate the relationships between job events and the affective reactions that are triggered by them. Empirical support has been found for a number of dispositional variables including the following: growth need strength (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000); the ability to label discrete emotions (Barrett, Tugade, & Engle, 2004); the person's self-esteem (Vangelisti, Young, Carpenter-Theune & Alexander, 2005); emotional stability (John & Gross, 2007); cultural values (Butler, Lee & Gross, 2007); face threat sensitivity (Tynan, 2005); positive affectivity (Toegel, Anand & Kilduff, 2007; Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale & Reb, 2003); whether the individual tends to regulate emotions through expressive suppression or cognitive reappraisal (Gross and John, 2003); and emotional intelligence, (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Ascough, 2007).

Of these variables, I focus on two of particular importance: *emotion regulation* and *trait negative affect* (NA).

6.2.3.1 Emotion Regulation as a Moderator

My attention to emotion regulation as an important moderator in my study resulted from Gross & John's (2003) series of correlational studies in which they found that that expressive suppression showed a positive link to negative emotions, while cognitive reappraisal was related to lesser experience of negative emotion. These findings were similar to those of Gross' early experimental studies (i.e., Gross, 1998a) in which participants watched a disgust-eliciting film with instructions to either cognitively reappraise their negative emotions, or to suppress their expression of them. Participants rated their disgust (which was embedded in distractor items) before and after viewing the film, and were also asked to write down how they had felt during the film. Gross (1998b) found that participants who were led to cognitively reappraise had lesser increases in the experience of disgust than the control group, while participants who had been led to suppress did not. Based on these findings Gross (1998b) cites support for his hypothesis that cognitive reappraisal, because it is more antecedent-focused (see *Figure 5.1),* lowers the subjective experience of negative emotion, while expressive suppression, which is more response-focused, does not. On the positive emotions side, his studies revealed that reappraisal was related to greater experience of positive emotion while expressive suppression was related to lower experience of positive emotion. Based on these findings, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion is stronger for *expressive suppressors* and weaker for *cognitive reappraisers.*

6.2.3.2 Trait Negative Affect as a Moderator

A great deal of empirical research supports the finding that individuals with high Trait NA tend to accentuate the negative aspects of a situation and are more likely, in

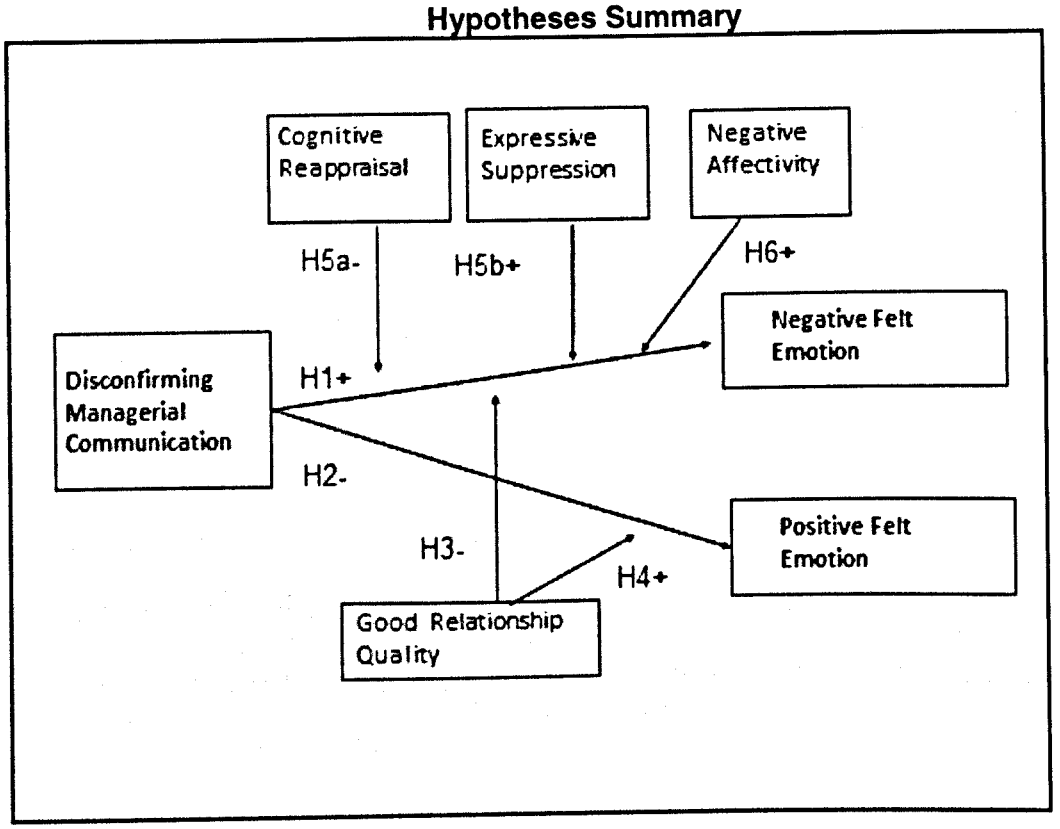
any situation, to experience more negative emotion and distress than those with low trait negative affect (Brief, Burke et al 1988). Theoretical support has come from Weiss & Kurek's (2003) model (discussed in chapter five) that proposes a number of possible personality influences on the emotion-generating process. They propose that an individual's Trait NA could influence both a job event itself (i.e., a manager might behave differently with a high Trait NA employee), as well as or in addition to, a person's primary appraisal of the event. Empirical support comes from behavioural activation system (BAS) and behavioural inhibition system (BIS) theory, whereby individuals with high trait NA have been found to be more likely to respond to signals of punishment or potential threats, than individuals with low trait NA (Watson et al., 1999). Thus, it is likely that when faced with a negative situation, such as disconfirming managerial communication, a high trait NA individual is more likely to respond with more negative emotion. An example of more recent support for this proposition comes from Grandey et al (2002) who tested how positive and negative moods, attitudes, and intentions influenced emotional reactions to events at work, and found a significant positive relationship between trait negative affect and overall negative emotions.

Based on this review, I offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is stronger for employees with high trait negative affect (NA) and weaker for employees with low trait negative affect (NA).

A summary of my hypotheses is found in *Figure 6.1*

FIGURE 6.1
Hypotheses Summary



7. MY METHODOLOGICAL JOURNEY AND CHANGING ASSUMPTIONS

The goals of this chapter are to: 1) explain my initial epistemological assumptions and how they have changed over the course of my investigation; 2) explain the alternative methods I could have used to test my hypotheses, as well as the theoretical, and practical considerations that have influenced my methodological plans; 3) explore the alternative approaches by which to elicit employee felt emotions, and explain my decision to focus on disagreement discussions; and 4) demonstrate the rationale for my methodology, measures, and statistical approach, outlining its strengths and limitations.

7.1 MY EPISTEMOLOGICAL JOURNEY

My methodological assumptions evolved and changed as I learned more about my subject matter. Initially my assumptions were influenced by two sources; one conceptual, from the organizational behaviour literature, and one methodological, from marital communication research. I will now explain each of these areas.

My initial conceptual assumptions were based on a model within the field of organizational behavior that has been used to teach supportive communication, defined as; "seeking to preserve a positive relationship while still addressing a problem, giving negative feedback or tackling a difficult issue" (Whetten & Cameron, 2007, p. 247). Called the *Eight Attributes of Supportive Communication*, this model proposed eight pairs of dialectical attributes that represent both supportive and non-supportive poles of managerial behaviour. According to Burrell & Morgan (1979), this perspective is termed *positivistic and realistic,* in that it assumes external reality exists outside of an individual's conception of it (realistic), and true knowledge can be distinguished from false knowledge without regard to a person's frame of reference (positivistic). Further classifying the eight attributes model according to Burrell & Morgan, (1979), the model

is not completely *deterministic* because it is a teaching model that assumes communicators are the creators of their environments and can, therefore, alter the way they behave.

My initial assumptions were also heavily influenced by research into the way that married couples communicate about areas over which they disagree (i.e., Gottman & Driver, 2005; Gottman & Notarius, 2002). I was fascinated by this methodology because it focused on measuring communication and emotion during live interactions, in real time, and in the context of a real relationship rather than a hypothetical or recalled relationship. Gottman's research method assumed that third parties could accurately assess both interpersonal communication behaviour and emotions, without regard to the participants' perspectives. Therefore, couples were videotaped during interactions and third parties used highly sophisticated measurement tools such as sequential analysis (Gottman & Roy, 1990), and the Specific Affect Coding System (Coan & Gottman, 2007) to describe and measure the communications and emotions of the married couples. According to Burrell & Morgan (1979), this approach is *realist* in its ontology in that it assumes that the reality being studied is external to the individual's awareness. The underlying epistemology is *positivist* because, through the use of third party coding, the assumption is being made that the truth or falsity of the emotion and interpersonal communication being studied is objective, and coding categories are a priori (Deetz, 1996).

Based on these influences and the accompanying functional and positivistic assumptions, I was planning to use a nomothetic methodology to convert the aforementioned *Eight Attributes Model* into a third party coding system, which could then be empirically tested. My initial plan was to use videotaped conversations taped by the BBC for a program that followed Sir Gerry Robinson as a consultant to the National Health Service in the UK (BBC2 Broadcast). However, as I immersed myself in the interpersonal communications literature, I was influenced by the relational communications perspective, and Sieburg's (1976) confirming-disconfirming communication construct, which emphasized the importance of the *subjective*

experiences of the communicators (Campos, 2007). As discussed in chapter three, Watzlawick et al. (1967) argued that communication is non-linear, and involves the communicators co-constructing their realities in a reciprocal and developmental relationship, as reflected in the following quote:

> ...Our everyday, traditional ideas of reality are delusions which we spend substantial parts of our daily lives shoring up, even at the considerable risk of trying to force facts to fit our definition of reality instead of vice versa. And the most dangerous delusion of all is that there is only one reality. What there are, in fact, are many different versions of reality, some of which are contradictory, but all of which are the results of communication and not reflections of external objective truths (p. xi).

Ten years later, Jesse Delia (1977) echoed these views and critiqued the dominant mode of communications research at the time as being merely "variable analysis," by which he meant an examination of the impact of specific variables upon communication outcomes (p. 72). He argued that this type of linear approach was; "necessarily insensitive to the complex relationships existing among the processes participating in human interaction" (Delia, 1977, p. 73). Building upon Watzlawick's (1967) relational communications perspective, he argued that interpersonal communication is an: "essentially interpretive process in which meanings evolve and change over the course of the interaction" (p. 71). He named this perspective; "structural developmentalism." In the taxonomy proposed by Burrell & Morgan (1979), this perspective would be classified as; "Action Frame of Reference," and I believe that this perspective is the one that best captures the epistemological assumptions that I am making in my research. Before outlining my actual methodology, I will first explore the various ways that I *could* have tested my hypotheses according to this perspective.

7.2 MEASUREMENT ALTERNATIVES

With an Action Frame of Reference, I explored five alternative methods for testing my hypotheses, which I identified as diary methods, verbal self-report, third party coding, non-verbal self-report, and vignettes or responses to hypothetical situations/role plays.

7.2.1 Diary Methods

While realizing that I was moving away from positivism, I was not prepared to become fully interpretive or ideographic because I was committed to, as Deetz (1996) would say, an objective or *a priori* approach, rather than a local or emergent one. Having identified Sieburg's (1976) disconfirming and confirming communication construct for my independent variable, I was; "heavily theory-driven with careful attention to definitions prior to my research process" (Deetz, 1996, p. 196). For this reason I rejected using narratives or diaries which, ontologically speaking, are the most subjective and ideographic approach. As Burrell and Morgan (1979) write, it: "emphasizes the analysis of the subjective accounts which one generates by 'getting inside' situations involving oneself in the everyday flow of life" (p. 6). Participants using this method record events, behaviours and/or emotions either at pre-set times, or in response to prompts from the researcher. The immediacy of diary methods allow researchers to learn about perceptions of events as they unfold over time and data is collected in a natural setting. According to Searle (2011): "Diary methods enable highly accurate reporting of events as they unfold, offering invaluable insights due to the recency, salience and sense-making of states of mind," (p. 2). Although the diary method allows the research to capture within-person variance of emotion (Weiss & Kurek, 2003), cuing procedures, such as Blackberry prompts at certain times of the day, may not sufficiently capture the incidents being researched (Searle, 2011).

7.2.2 Verbal Self-Report

There are a number of different verbal self-report scales of emotional experience and the most common in the social sciences is the Positive Affect Negative Affect Schedule or PANAS (Dasborough, Sinclair et al 2008). While the PANAS is not geared to the workplace, and measures mainly mood states, by contrast Fisher's (2000) Job Emotions Scale (JES) is geared to the workplace, and the items address discrete emotions that assume targets specific targets. Dasborough, Sinclair et al. (2008) list other scales that are available for social science research, such as the Job Related Affective Well-Being Scale, the Job Affect Scale, and the Semantic Differential Measure of Emotional state scale (also referred to as the PAD scale).

There are two main problems with measuring emotion using verbal self-report. First, it is difficult to assess whether the researcher is measuring an emotion state or personality trait. Weiss & Kurek (2003) stress that personality and affect are very different constructs because affect is a *state,* fundamentally changeable and time-bound with large within-person differences over time, while personality is a *trait* or disposition, assumed to be more stable and invariant. Weiss & Kurek (2003) raise the issue that there is a seeming disconnect when; "inquiring how a state like construct, characterized by its variability, can be explained by a trait construct defined by its stability" (p. 125). The second problem is the fact that individuals differ in their abilities to both differentiate, and correctly label their own emotional experiences (Feldman-Barrett, 2004). This means that it is difficult to determine whether self-reported differences are due to actual differences in emotional experience, or just differences in reporting ability (Robinson & Clore, 2002).

Another key methodological issue when measuring interpersonal communication using verbal self-report, is whether the required recall is *general* or *context specific* (i.e., Madlock, 2008; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Matveev, 2004; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002; Barry & Crant, 2000; Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 2004; Morisaki, 1997; Rubin & Martin,1994; Spitzberg & Brunner, 1991; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Spitzberg & Hecht, 1984; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Duran, 1983; Monge,

Backman, et al, 1982; Cegala, 1981; Weimann & Kelly, 1981; Cegala, 1981; Norton, 1978). Asking respondents to recall a person's communication behaviour "in general" can be faulty, because it assumes that the communicator will communicate in the same way regardless of context. However, while context-specific recall will likely be more accurate, individuals may not be able to remember specific communication behaviours, or those that they do recall may fail to capture the full phenomenon under study.

Finally, it is important to mention two additional disadvantages of self-report methods that apply to the measurement of both emotions and interpersonal communications: The first disadvantage is the fact that recall requires memory, which might be inaccurate, distorted or clouded by the emotions themselves (Dasborough et al., 2008, p. 2). The second disadvantage of paper-based self-report methods is that they are subject to common method biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie , Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). This potential bias can be caused by either having a common rater, like the employee, and/or by having a common measurement context, i.e., on a single survey.

7.2.3 Dyadic Interaction, Third Party Coding and Sequential Analysis

Dyadic interaction tasks and third party coding have been used extensively to research the interpersonal communication of married couples (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989). In these studies, couples were instructed to discuss (while being videotaped) an area of current disagreement in their relationship. Two cameras filmed each subject's head and upper torso, and a video special-effects generator then combined the images from these remote cameras into a split-screen image, which gave coders a full frontal view of the facial expressions of both the husband and wife simultaneously. Coders used the Specific Affect Coding System (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989), an observational coding system that contains five positive affect codes (affection, enthusiasm, humor, interest, and validation) and twelve negative affect codes (anger, belligerence, contempt, criticism, defensiveness, disgust, domineering, fear/tension, sadness, stonewalling, threats, and whining). Each code is defined and has behavioural indicators. For example, the negative affect code entitled "Domineering" has five

indicators, which are invalidation, lecturing or patronizing, low balling (getting the other to start saying yes first to short circuit the partner's retaliation and instead elicit agreement), incessant speech, and glowering. The descriptor for *invalidation* (most pertinent to my study) is described as follows: "Invalidation deliberately and forcefully contradicts the validity of the receiver's point of view (e.g. 'that's just wrong') or expressed feelings (e.g. 'oh, you are not afraid, quit exaggerating') (Coan & Gottman, 2007, p. 275). The coding manual also provides brief physical cues and counter indicators. For example, a physical cue for *domineering* is; "(the horns), head forward, body forward, finger pointing, head cocked to one side" (p. 276), and its counter indicator is; *Contemptuous patronizing* defined as; "whenever the content of patronizing becomes blatantly insulting, it should be coded Contempt" (p. 276). Subjectivists critique this kind of third party coding by claiming that issues like meta-communication are only accessible to the perceiver. For example, Cissna & Sieburg (1981) wrote:

> Confirming acts, and especially disconfirming ones, do not always come neatly packaged in such statement-response units. Like double-binds, other kinds of disconfirming acts are not always evident in one sentence, and considerable expertise is required to recognize the often-lengthy patterns that comprise a disconfirming 'act' (p. 272).

Positivists like Gottman have responded to this criticism by measuring non-verbal channels that take a disproportionate share of the relational work (Cohn, Ambadar & Ekman, 2007; Burgoon & Koper, 1984; Dailey, 2008), and by developing more complex coding methods such as sequential analysis, which assess longer sequences of interactions (Gottman & Roy, 1990). For example, Gottman and Roy (1990) used sequential analysis to determine that while satisfied married couples tended to use *short* chains of meta-communication, by contrast dissatisfied couples, "meta communication was like an absorbing state... it was difficult to exit once entered" (p. 4). They also found that marital partners who disagreed quite a bit during the "middle stages" were more likely to achieve later compromise, whereas those who

avoided conflict during this phase had greater difficulty in coming to a resolution (Gottman, Coan, Carrere & Swanson, 1998).

The strengths of using a dyadic interaction task as a measurement tool are that it mitigates the recall problems inherent in self-report, and that measurement is taken in the context of a real relationship. The biggest weakness of this method is that participants may behave differently when they are being observed due to social desirability (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al 2003). While Gottman & Roy (1990) and other researchers (Roberts, Tsai & Coan, 2007) downplay this problem, I speculate that socially desirable responding and "best behaviour" would be more evident when the dyad is comprised of a manager and his or her employee. In addition, as Dailey (2008) commented, when recruiting dyads for a live interaction task, a selection error may occur due to the personalities of the individuals who agree to participate, such that those who volunteer may be the less disconfirming communicators.

7.2.4 Non-Verbal Emotion Self-Report

In order to address the aforementioned fact that individuals differ in their ability to provide verbal descriptions of their own emotions (Feldman-Barrett, 2004), a few innovative *non-verbal* self-report tools have been developed. For example, the Affect Rating Dial (Ruef & Levensen, 2007) employs a joystick device that participants manipulate while watching a video of their interaction. This allows them to provide ratings of their positive or negative emotions at each moment during the conversation, as they view it (Roberts et al 2007). The dial traverses a 180 degree arc over a 9-point scale anchored with the legends; "very negative" at 0, "neutral" at 90 degrees, and "very positive" at 180 degrees. According to the protocol recommended by Roberts et al (2007), partners' chairs are turned 90 degrees so that both partners are facing the video monitor. A screen is placed between them so that they cannot see one another's rating or facial expressions while documenting their own ratings. Each partner wears headphones to deter them from talking to each other and so they cannot hear each other's verbal reactions (such as laughing out loud).

7.2.5 Vignettes, Scripted Interactions, and Role Play Interactions

While all the preceding methods measure interpersonal communication in the context of a real relationship, three alternatives that do not utilize real relationships include: a) experimental manipulation of communication variables using confederates, b) responses to scripted communications, and c) measurement of interactions using previously unacquainted dyads in role plays. I will now discuss each of these approaches.

An example of using confederates to study interpersonal communication is found in an early study of disconfirming communication by Jacobs (1973). She set up interviews, ostensibly for the purpose of collecting data on housing conditions, and found that students who were (deliberately) disconfirmed by their professors during the interview, were less satisfied with their own performance than students who were confirmed (Jacobs, 1973). These interviews were taped, and third party coded using detailed instructions such as the following one for the type of disconfirmation classified as imperviousness: "Turns away from the other; does not look directly at him or make any eye contact. Performs other unrelated tasks (reads, shuffles papers, answers telephone, talks with a third party, while other is speaking" (Jacobs, 1973, p. 118).

Jablin (1977) had participants view and respond to scripted interactions between male superiors and their subordinates. Videotapes were scripted to conform to one of five types of message-response categories as follows: *confirming* (positive content and positive relational feedback), *disagreeing* (negative content feedback but positive relational feedback), *acceding* (positive content but negative relational feedback), *repudiating* (negative content and negative relational feedback) or *disconfirming* (irrelevant or inappropriate content and "equally irrelevant relational feedback") (p. 42). Garvin & Kennedy (1986) asked formerly unacquainted nurses and physicians to engage in a 30-minute decision-making task, and found that 87% of all utterances were coded as confirming. One of the limitations that the authors mentioned was the fact that the members of the dyad were strangers, raising concerns about generalizability.

All these approaches offer increased control over the variables being measured, but suffer from the fact that the situations are not real, nor contextualized within a real relationship. These methodologies make the assumption that an individual would respond similarly to all communication, regardless of the particular person involved, the length of time involved, or the quality of the relationship. This goes against the relational communication assumptions discussed in chapter three and accordingly I reject these alternatives for my study, aligning my assumptions with Delia (1977), who critiques this approach because people shift their dimensions of judgment from context to context.

7.3 EMOTION ELICITATION ALTERNATIVES

One of the challenges in emotions research is to decide how to elicit the emotional response that is to be measured. Emotions require a specific target and by definition, are directed at someone or something (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). A number of different methods have been used to elicit emotions such as emotion-inducing film clips, pictures, facial expressions, music, primary reinforcers, dyadic interaction tasks, and relived emotions (Coan & Allen, 2007). Because I am interested in the emotions elicited during interpersonal communication in a real relationship, my options were limited to either, a) elicitation during a dyadic interaction task or b) elicitation through verbal self-report of relived emotions. I was aware of the pitfalls of asking a communicator to recall general characteristics of another person's communications (discussed in 7.2.2). Consequently, I wanted to select a specific communication context that participants would be able to recall, while capturing the full phenomenon under study. While communication topic does act as a contextual influence, as discussed in chapter four, two studies in particular alerted me to the methodological importance of specifying a topic that was personally relevant and likely to engage multiple goals, thereby finding a context in which disconfirming communication was likely to be happening. First, Garvin & Kennedy (1986) speculated that incidences of

disconfirmation between interns and nurses were low because the assigned task (deciding how to hypothetically spend a $35,000 gift to the hospital) was neither controversial, nor personally relevant, (De Houwer & Hermans, 2010). Garvin and Kennedy (1986) also suggested that their study should be replicated; "in a natural setting, where the complex variables that influence nurse-physician communication could be more fully examined" (p. 14). The second study was Dailey's (2006) study of parental disconfirmation. In order to elicit emotion, she asked the parent and his or her adolescent child to give their individual opinions using a questionnaire that contained Kohlberg's five moral dilemmas. They were then asked to discuss and try to reach consensus on one of the dilemmas on which they disagreed. Dailey (2006) explained that she chose the moral dilemmas task rather than asking the dyad to discuss an actual common conflict in their relationship; "to minimize the risk to the participants" (p. 441). She also thought this would standardize the interactions because, if free to choose, some dyads may have chosen a minor issue while others may have selected a major one. Dailey (2006) reports that parents were "overwhelmingly confirming," during the moral dilemma task and that coding had to be reduced to 5 minutes, due to many of the dyads losing interest in the task itself (p. 450). I speculate that this was probably because it was not a meaningful or goal-relevant task and that multiple goals were not engaged. As discussed in chapter four, conflicts can occur around the three superordinate goal types of a) social acceptance/developing relationships, b) own well-being, and c) achieving a specific task goal so even a general conversation about the weather can potentially elicit an emotional response. However, I decided to follow the lead of Gottman and others (i.e. Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) who used an area of current disagreement as the topic of discussion for emotion elicitation, where managers are more likely to be disconfirming and presence of additional dominance-persuasion goal issues, provide the potential for the elicitation of more intense emotions. Also, specifying a disagreement context somewhat alleviates the problem of functional ambivalence in studies of interpersonal communication emerged as important when I reviewed the wide range of studies in which some researchers asked for perceptions of

their supervisor's communication in general, while others asked for perceptions under specific circumstances such as while receiving negative feedback (Gaddis, Connelly & Mumford, 2004). Looking to the dyadic interaction studies, it became clear that the disagreement context was preferred and in fact critical to these studies. In the aforementioned marital communications research (Gottman et al 1977), topic inventories were used to elicit emotion in dyadic interaction studies. These topic inventories are often used to help dyads identify an important area of disagreement and are called "Areas of (Current) Disagreement" (Roberts, 2005). Procedures, guidelines and troubleshooting for the disagreement discussion as well as the role of the facilitator, have been well documented in "Emotion Elicitation Using Dyadic Interaction Tasks" (Roberts et al 2007). I decided to borrow the disagreement context from the dyadic interaction task and to apply it to verbal self-report of relived emotions.

7.4 INITIAL METHODOLOGY PLANS: STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES

While my assumptions had shifted toward a more subjective assessment of the phenomena I was researching, I remained committed to testing a specific interpersonal communication model, as well as describing and analyzing "naturally occurring overt verbal and nonverbal behaviour" (Knapp, Daly et al, 2002, p. 11). However, very few workplace studies of *overt, naturally occurring* interpersonal communication behaviour have been conducted with the exception of those of sociologist Gail Fairhurst (1989, 1993), who demonstrated how leaders display social structure through their use of power and social distance language forms.

My initial methodology plan was a mixed-method approach that included an initial verbal self-report survey, to be followed a month later by a dyadic interaction task, with non-verbal and verbal self-reporting, rather than third party coding. My intent was that after an initial meeting with the manager-employee dyad at their workplace to review the study and obtain consent from both parties, participants would individually complete an on-line (verbal report) survey. The purpose of the survey was to identify

areas of current disagreement, perceived relationship quality, emotion regulation strategy, and some personality control variables. I planned to invite a smaller sample of dyads (based on high and low disconfirming managerial communication scores in the on-line survey), to identify an area of current disagreement, and then engage in a dyadic interaction task which would be videotaped. The manager and employee would spend 15-20 minutes discussing their area of disagreement with the videotape running in a work setting, with no experimenter in the room.

With my shifting assumptions towards more ideographic measurement and due to the well reported memory problems associated with verbal self-report, I decided that instead of using third party coders, I would ask each participant to self-report on their perceptions of the other's disconfirming communication behaviour, as well as their emotion regulation strategy immediately after the disagreement discussion. Then, I would show the partners a videotape of their conversation, and use a non-verbal self-report measure to assess their emotional responses during the interaction.

Unfortunately, given the sensitivity of this topic area, the original methods plan for the research raised a few problems. These problems can be classified under the three headings of *access*, *self-selection* and *ethics*. I approached HR managers to discuss possible access to manager-employee dyads, because if access was granted through the manager and was voluntary, there could be a problem of self-selection such that volunteers selected would be the more confirming communicators. Another challenge was the number of dyads I would need in order to draw valid conclusions. In addition, access to the employees would have to come through their managers, which raised ethical issues of possible coercion, or alternatively, harm to the employee for refusing. When I took my proposed methodology to an *Academy of Management* professional development workshop, one of the scholars cautioned me about not being able to obtain ethics approval, and she was right. In order to address the ethical issue of an employee feeling coerced into participating with his or her manager, or experiencing potential negative consequences as a result of engaging in the

disagreement discussion, I revised my plan so that the initial volunteer should be the employee not the manager, to reduce the possibility of harm to the employee. Consequently, rather than using an online survey (which tends to result in low response rates), I obtained permission to hand out paper and pencil employee surveys, to employed adults who were taking courses at the Canadian university where I taught. I intended that the employee survey would be the first step, and that I would recruit volunteers from this round who would involve their managers by participating in a second stage dyadic interaction task. At the end of my first (March) questionnaire (See Appendix 1, p. 221) I wrote: "*If you would be willing to consider participating, or simply would like to find out more about the study, please provide me with your email address.*" Forty-eight out of the 223 participants gave me their email addresses, but when I followed-up I realized that, rather than volunteering for Stage 2, they just wanted to find out more about the study findings. Unfortunately, my proposed protocol for Stage 2 (See Appendices 3a-3d) was not approved by the ethics board, as predicted.

7.5 FINAL METHODOLOGY PLAN

Because employees were reluctant to volunteer for the dyadic interaction task, and my inability to obtain ethics approval, I decided to drop the interaction task from the study and I removed the Stage 2 request from my second survey (See Appendix 4). My final plan was to rely on a paper and pencil survey for gathering my data, and to use a sample of employed adults taking courses at a Canadian university. I planned to; a) confirm the factor structure using structural equation modeling for my main measures of disconfirming managerial communication, employee felt emotion, relationship quality, trait NA, and emotion regulation, and b) to test my hypotheses using multiple and moderated multiple regression analysis using SPSS. I decided to use moderated multiple regressions because it offers the most robust approach to identifying moderating influences, and also because the approach tests for contextual influences,

which are at the very root of my two guiding frameworks: Relational Communication and Affective Events Theory.

7.6 MAIN MEASURES – STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES

The main measures I decided to use were as follows: For managerial interpersonal communication, I modified Ellis' (2002) Parent Confirmation Behaviour Indicator. For positive and negative felt emotions, I chose Fisher's (2000) Job Emotions Scale. For relationship quality, I chose the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). For emotion regulation, I chose Gross & John's (2003) Emotion Regulation Questionnaire. For trait negative affect, I chose the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson et al 1988). I will now provide an overview of these measures, and I will also provide brief descriptions of the control measures and the rationale for their inclusion.

7.6.1 The Modified Parent Confirmation Behaviour Indicator (Independent Variable)

There were no existing measures of disconfirming and confirming *managerial* communication, but there was one existing measures of perceived confirmation in general, and one more recent measure of parental confirmation and disconfirmation. Sieburg (1969) designed the more general, 6-item Perceived Confirmation Survey (PCS), which is sometimes called the Perceived Confirmation Inventory or PCI. The PCS/I has been used to assess perceived confirmation of couples (Cissna & Keating, 1979), supervisors (Sinclair, 2000), parents and adolescents (Ellis, 2000), and students and teachers (Mottet, Garza, Beebe, Houser, Jurrells & Furler, 2008; Ellis, 2000; Jacobs, 1973). Opinions on the reliability of the instrument have been mixed (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981). The six items in the PCI/S are: He/she is aware of me; He/she isn't at all interested in what I say; He/she accepts me; He/she has no respect for me at all; He/she dislikes me; and He/she trusts me.

The second measure is the 28-item Parent Confirmation Behavior Indicator or PCBI (Ellis, 2002) *(Appendix 12)*. Ellis tested the PCBI with a sample of 244 young

adults (aged 18 to 23) who lived in their parents' homes, and reported that correlations with the aforementioned PCS ranged from .41 to .69, $p < .01$, and that principal components extraction with an un-rotated factor structure, suggested a single factor solution. She reported a Chi Square using LISREL 8 of 2.24 (1503.06/672) but no other fit statistics were provided, except to support measurement equivalence between mothers and fathers. She also proposed that disconfirming behaviours could be clustered around a hierarchy from most to least disconfirming. Reliability for the original PCBI was .95 and subsequent reliability with similar populations has also been high with Dailey (2006) reporting an alpha of .93.

To make the measure more suitable as an assessment of managerial (rather than parental) communication, only the following three items needed to be removed: "*Attended sports events, music events, or other activities in which I participated*", "*Asked how I felt about school, family issues, punishments etc.*" and "*Avoided physical contact such as touching, hugging, pats on the back etc.*" The instructions were also amended to reflect a different context as follows: "*Think about these disagreements. We would like to know more about what happened. Please indicate how often your manager engaged in each of the behaviours*". The scale used was a 7-point scale measuring the perceived frequency of managerial confirmation and disconfirmation ranging from "Never" to "Always".

7.6.2 The Job Emotions Scale (Dependent Variable)

Fisher's (2000) Job Emotions Scale (JES) was selected to assess participants' negative and positive felt emotions resulting from disagreement discussions with their managers. A copy of the Job Emotions Scale can be found in *Appendix 18.* The Job Emotions Scale was created specifically by Fisher (2000) for use in the workplace, and to overcome the problems with scales such as the PANAS (Watson et al 1988), which includes mood items, such as "alert" that do not have a specific target. Fisher only included emotion terms that did imply a specific target, as required by definition. The eight negative emotion items in the JES are: disgusted, worried, angry, frustrated,

depressed, disappointed, unhappy and embarrassed. The eight positive emotion items are: liking for someone or something, enthusiastic, content, enjoying something, optimistic, pleased, proud and happy. In the current study, the instruction given on the survey was "*To what extent did you experience each of the following emotions during (or after) these disagreements with your manager?*" The five item scale was 1-not at all, 2-a little, 3-moderately, 4-quite a bit and 5-a great deal.

7.6.3 Leader-Member Exchange 7 (Moderator)

As discussed in the literature review, relationship quality in the management literature has been of interest mainly to leader-member exchange (LMX) researchers. Within the leader member exchange research, the tool for measuring relationship quality is the LMX scale, which has been revised over the years and has resulted in 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12 and 14 item scales (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), the 7-item version (called the LMX-7 scale), is the most appropriate and recommended measure of relationship quality, and is therefore the one I have chosen to use. The LMX-7 scale has been used in many studies of leader-member relationship quality, and was considered suitable for the current study because the focus of this study is interpersonal communication in the context of a real relationship, and in LMX-7: "the centroid item is how effective is your working relationship with your leader?" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 236) The LMX-7 scale is theorized to contain the three highly correlated dimensions of respect, trust and obligation and is composed of seven items reflecting various aspects of the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate. These items include working relationship effectiveness, the supervisor's recognition of the subordinate's potential, willingness to support the subordinate, and understanding of the subordinate's problems and needs. Instructions and scales for completion of the LMX-7 in my study followed (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and read as follows: "*Please circle the response that best reflects your views.*" Cronbach alphas for the LMX-7 range between 80% and 90%.

7.6.4 Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Moderator)

Much of the study of emotion regulation has been in the field of biological psychology through which it has been discovered that the prefrontal cortex is key to emotion regulation (Gross, 1998b). Gross (1998a) showed participants a disgusting film and monitored their subjective experience (through self-report), their behaviours (through video recordings of their facial behaviour and upper body movements), and their physiological responses (through finger pulse amplitude, finger temperature, skin conductance level, general somatic activity and cardiac inter-beat interval. He instructed some of the participants to *cognitively reappraise* their disgust, while others were instructed to *suppress* their expression of disgust. They argued that since their experimental research was in its early stages, rather than trying to explore all five possible strategies (as shown in *Figure 5.3*) it made sense to focus on a smaller number of strategies. They also argued that since their model makes an important distinction between antecedent-focused, and response focused strategies, it was important to include one exemplar of each (i.e. cognitive reappraisal as an exemplar of an antecedent-focused strategy, and expressive suppression as an exemplar of a response-focused strategy). Gross and John (2003) subsequently designed a self-report emotion regulation questionnaire which they called the ERQ, based on these same two emotion regulation strategies. They used the ERQ to measure respondents' recall of how they regulated their emotions in general, and compared these to peer-rated reports of emotional expressiveness. The present study explores only the final two strategies in the emotion regulation process for the same reasons expressed by Gross and John (2003). The 10-item Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (*Appendix 21)* includes six items to measure the "cognitive reappraisal" factor and four items to measure the "expressive suppression" factor (Gross & John, 2003). Gross and John (2003) tested their emotion regulation questionnaire in four different samples and, using a Varimax rotation method, compared factor loadings as shown in *Appendix 22.* Their Scree tests always suggested two factors, the first being defined by the 6 reappraisal items and the second by the 4 suppression items. Alpha reliabilities over

the four samples ranged from .75 to .83 (average .79) for cognitive reappraisal, and .68 to .76 (average .73) for expressive suppression. Men scored significantly higher than women on the suppression scale. They report that there were no correlations between the two factors with the mean r = -.01.

7.6.5 Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (Moderator)

The 20-item Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson et al., 1988) was included as a control measure regarding participants' mood (trait affect) at work. A copy of the PANAS is given in *Appendix 27.* The scale generates two factors, one for positive affect (PA) and one for negative affect (NA). The 10 PA items were interested, excited, alert, inspired, strong, determined, attentive, enthusiastic, active and proud. The 10 NA items were irritable, distressed, ashamed, upset, nervous, guilty, scared, hostile, jittery and afraid. The instruction given was as follows: *"This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way at work, that is, how you feel on the average while at work."* The 5-point scale was labeled 1-very slightly or not at all, 2-a little, 3-moderately, 4-quite a bit and 5-extremely.

7.7 CONTROL MEASURES: RATIONALE, STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES

I included a measure of emotional stability from the Ten Item Personality Indicator (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003) as well as a number of other measures which I now discuss:

7.7.1 Emotional Stability (Control Variable)

The two emotional stability items from Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) were included as a control variable to assess the respondent's self-assessed emotional stability (Gosling et al 2003). The TIPI contains a total of ten items, two for each of the

Big Five factors and the two items pertaining to emotional stability/neuroticism (one positively and one negatively worded) are "anxious, easily upset" and "calm, emotionally stable." The TIPI was selected for use in this study because of its brevity, adequate reliability (.73) and validity, the convergent correlation between the TIPI emotional stability factor and the 44-item Big Five Inventory was .81, $p < .01$ (Gosling et al., 2003). The 7-item scale is 1-disagree strongly, 2-disagree moderately, 3-disagree a little, 4-neither agree nor disagree, 5-agree a little, 6-agree moderately and 7-agree strongly.

7.7.2 Other Measures

In my survey I also measure employee gender, manager gender, whether the participant is a supervisory or non-supervisory employee, how long he or she has been reporting to the manager, the number of hours worked per week, and the approximate number of times per week that the participant communicates face-to-face or by phone with his or her manager. The reporting time category was multiplied by hours worked per week (then divided by ten for simplicity) to create a more accurate measure called "Contact Time." This measure was included to address the importance of temporal context in the relationship as discussed in chapter three, and because length of time in a relationship has been found to influence the nature of interpersonal communication. Also, when members of dyads were interviewed over the course of a year to better understand how their relationships unfolded, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) discovered a number of predictable stages, discussed in their model entitled the "Life Cycle of Leadership Modeling." The process begins with a "stranger" phase in which interactions are more formal and contractual. This is followed by the "acquaintance" stage in which one or both members of the dyad makes, and accepts an "offer" for an improved working relationship so as to move to the second stage which they call the "acquaintance" stage. Offers include information and resources and at the third level, called "maturity," exchanges have longer time spans for reciprocation and include emotional exchanges.

7.8 METHODOLOGICAL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

The strengths of my final methodology are as follows: a) I explore communication and emotion in the context of a current and real working relationship. b) I am measuring the employees' perceptions of their managers' disconfirming and confirming communications, thereby capturing the cumulative effects of the relationship over time, as well as the meta-communication which is difficult to capture using third party coders. c) Rather than measuring communication out of context, employees are rating how their managers behave during their disagreements, so that there is less functional ambivalence. d) My methodology minimizes (but probably does not eliminate) confusion between state and trait affect, because I measure both state emotion, using the Job Emotions Scale, and trait affectivity using the PANAS. e) Although the employee (not the dyad) is the unit of analysis, through inclusion of relationship quality as a moderator variable, the study does to some extent, take the dyadic perspective into account. f) Similarly, while a longitudinal perspective has not been taken, inclusion of contact time as a control variable provides some insight into the longitudinal implications of the data.

There are a number of methodological weaknesses however; a) Verbal report is subject to recall errors. b) Individuals differ in their abilities to differentiate and label their own emotions. c) Common method variance is a potential problem because all the measures are collected on the same survey, at the same time, from the same respondent. d) My unit of study is the individual employee rather than the dyad so I am missing the manager's perspective about the relationship as well as data about the employees' communication behaviour.

8. METHODS AND EVALUATION OF MEASURES

In this chapter, I begin by summarizing my data collection procedures, missing values treatments, sample characteristics, and descriptive statistics for each measure. To ensure that the two samples were not statistically different, and could therefore be combined for hypothesis testing, I tested for differences using chi-square and t-tests. I then explored the measures using confirmatory factor analysis on sample one data. When CFA failed to confirm scales, I switched into exploratory mode, still using the first sample to come up with a new factor structure. Then I used CFA to test and confirm my new hypothesized structure for the second sample. I will now report the fit statistics and any necessary item trimming, and then summarize the final measures that I used to test my hypotheses.

8.1 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data was collected from two samples. Sample one was collected in March of 2010, and sample two was collected in October of 2010. Paper and pencil questionnaires were used to collect information about employees' perceptions of their managers' reactions to disagreement discussions, as well as their own emotional responses.

For sample one, instructors that taught human resources management and organizational behaviour courses in the evenings provided access for 20-30 minutes of survey administration. Only those students who were working full- or part-time were invited to complete the questionnaires. The survey was set up so that participants who had had a disagreement with their manager completed the entire survey, while those who had not had any disagreements were instructed to skip to a later section in the survey (*Appendix 1*). For sample two, in addition to obtaining access from the same human resources management and organizational behaviour instructors, instructors that taught accounting courses also agreed to provide the same level of access for survey administration. In addition to retaining the core of the survey used in sample

one (ensuring that the two samples could be combined for hypothesis testing), I made a few changes as follows: 1) I added a measure of organizational citizenship behaviour to the survey in order to explore (post PhD) the downstream consequences of employee felt emotion, and 2) I decided to create an alternate version of the survey for those participants who indicated that they had not had any disagreements with their managers. My thought was that this would allow me to compare perceived confirming and disconfirming managerial communication between employees who had had disagreements with their managers, and those who had not. For this purpose, I designed a second "No Disagreement" version of the survey that was identical to the "Disagreement" version, except that wherever the statement "*disagreements* with your manager" appeared, it was changed to "*conversations* with your manager." See *Appendices 4a, 4b and 5* for the two versions of the October survey and the consent form.

8.2 SAMPLE

Sample 1 consisted of 223 employed adults who were taking evening **courses** at Ryerson University, with 215 questionnaires retained. Of these, 134 were composed of participants who reported having had a disagreement with their manager. Sample 2 consisted of 207 employed adults taking evening courses at the same University. Of these 194 questionnaires, 141 surveys were usable where participants reported having had a disagreement with their manager. Thus a total of 275 "disagreement" surveys were obtained. In addition, there were 134 usable surveys from respondents who indicated that they had *not* had any disagreements with their managers. This included 81 "No Disagreement" surveys from the March sample, but these respondents were instructed to skip the questions pertaining to their disagreements with their managers. There were however, 53 "No Disagreement" surveys from the October sample, and these respondents rated their managers' communications during "conversations"

(rather than disagreements) so it was possible to analyze their responses in light of the hypotheses. This is shown in a post-hoc analysis at the end of the results section.

8.2.1 Sample Characteristics

Table 8.1 shows the sample characteristics for the final (combined) sample used to test the hypotheses. A full summary including the two "No Disagreement" samples for the March, October, and combined samples is provided in *Appendix 7.*

TABLE 8.1
Selected Sample Characteristics

	Total	Non-Cumulative %	Cumulative %
	275		
Male employee	119	44	
Female employee	154	56	
Male manager	153	56	
Female manager	121	44	
Supervisory	77	29	
Non-Supervisory	193	71	
Hours Worked:			Cumulative %
1-10	18	7	7
11-20	59	22	29
21-35	54	20	49
36 -40	86	32	81
Over 40	50	19	100
Total n Reporting Hours Works	267		
Length of Reporting Time			Cumulative %
<6 months	71	26	26
6 m to 1yr	50	18	44
1- 4 years	126	46	90
5-10+ years	27	10	100
Total n Reporting Length of Reporting Time	274		
Direct Interaction Frequency			Cumulative %
Not Once	10	3	3
Less than once a week	18	7	10
About once or twice a week	62	23	33
About once a day	36	13	46
About once or twice a day	27	10	56
More than twice a day	120	44	100
Total n reporting direct interaction frequency	273		

The combined disagreement sample was comprised of 56% females, with 56% of their managers being male, and 71% holding non-supervisory positions. Just under half (49%) worked 35 hours per week or less and 44% had reported to their current manager for one year or less. Forty-four percent of participants reported interacting directly more than twice a day with their manager (communicating either face-to-face or by phone) in the preceding 4 weeks.

8.2.2 Validity Tests on Samples

Because the samples were split based on whether or not the participants had had a disagreement with their manager, it was necessary to explore a) weather the disagreement and no-disagreement samples differed *within* each sample, and b) whether the March and October disagreement samples differed on key variables, and if so, in what ways. c) Also, because there were two rounds of data collection, it was important to ensure that there were no significant differences between the two samples, so that they could be combined for analysis. To this end, chi-square tests were used to explore whether any significant differences existed between samples on the categorical scores, and t-tests were used to explore differences between samples on continuous variables. In order to conduct the Chi-Square tests, the "Hours Worked," "Length of Reporting Time" and "Direct Interaction Frequency" data was re-coded into fewer categories to adjust for cell sizes that were too small. Results of all Chi Square tests are given in *Appendix 8* and results of all t-Tests are given in *Appendix 9.*

<u>March Sample</u>

Only two significant differences between the "Disagreement" group and "No Disagreement" group in the March sample were found. First, as shown in *Appendix 8,* participants who indicated that they had had a disagreement with their manager had reported to their managers significantly longer (Tenure with manager) than those who had not had a disagreement (Chi Sq. = 19.68, 3, p. = .000), perhaps reflecting the greater opportunity for disagreements to develop in longer working relationships.

Second, as shown in *Appendix 9,* participants who had not had a disagreement had significantly lower overall trait negative affect at work (t=2.53, 213, p. = .01) than participants who had had a disagreement.

October Sample

The October sample also revealed two significant differences between the "Disagreement" and "No Disagreement" groups. First, as shown in *Appendix 8,* there were significantly more male managers in the "Disagreement" group than in the "No Disagreement" group (Chi Sq. = .53, 1, p < .02). Second, as shown in *Appendix 9,* relationship quality was significantly lower in the "Disagreement" group (t= - 2.10, 192, p = .037). It should be noted that the relationship quality t also approached significance in the March sample at -1.82, 313, p = .07. Second, as shown in *Appendix 9,* contrary to the March sample, participants who had *not* had a disagreement did not have a significantly lower trait negative affect at work (t=.50, 213, p. = .62) than participants who had had a disagreement.

Combined Sample

When the combined "Disagreement" and "No Disagreement" groups were compared (n = 407), three significant differences were evident. First, as shown in *Appendix 8,* tenure with the manager differed significantly between the two groups, with tenure being significantly shorter in the combined "No Disagreement" group (Chi sq. = 20.79, 5, p = .00). Second, as shown in *Appendix 9,* the no disagreement group had significantly higher relationship quality (t =-3.22, 407, p = .00) and significantly higher trait negative affect at work (t = 2.21, 407, p = .03).

When the March and October "Disagreement" samples were compared, no significant differences were found on continuous variables (See *Appendix 9*), however, two differences were found in the categorical variables as follows *(Appendix 8).* There were significantly more male managers in the October sample (Chi Sq. = 10.43, 1,

p=.001) and more of the October participants worked 11-20 hours per week (Chi Sq. = 8.99, 3, p=.029).

8.2.3 Validity of Combined Disagreement Sample: Conclusion

The two differences between the March and October disagreement samples on categorical variables showed that there were more male managers in the October sample. Since manager gender was not significant in any of the regressions, this difference should not affect any of my results. Also, while the October sample had more participants working 11-20 hours per week, no significant differences emerged when the March and October "Disagreement" samples were compared (n =267) using the "Contact Time" measure (hours/week x reporting time/10) (Chi sq. = 33.44, 26, p =.15). Both the significantly *higher mean for trait negative affect* at work in the combined disagreement sample, and the significantly *lower mean for relationship quality* in the combined "Disagreement" group when compared to the combined "No Disagreement" group is worthy of note, and is addressed in the discussion in chapter ten.

8.2.4 Coding of Disagreement Topics

Participants were asked to: "*Think about the times you have had disagreements with your manager. What were the disagreements about? Please list <u>all</u> the topics.*" Using a method similar to the one used by Fitness (2000), I sorted the topics according to thematic similarity and created emergent categories (*Appendix 10).* There were a wide variety of disagreement topics and these are discussed in the Results section.

8.3 MISSING VALUES TREATMENT

All cases with 15% or greater missing values were deleted from the combined sample, as well as any cases with 15% or more of the main variables, such as disconfirming managerial communication (DMC), felt emotion or emotion regulation

(ERQ). This resulted in eight cases out of 142 (5.6%) being deleted from the March sample, (leaving 134 usable cases) and 9 cases out of 150 (6%) were deleted from the October sample, (leaving 141 usable cases). Cases with lower numbers of missing values were retained in the study and these missing values were imputed and replaced with the regression means of their respective samples. Missing categorical values were not replaced. It should be noted that a very small percentage of actual scores were imputed. Only .31% of scores from the March sample (36/11,792) and only .61% of scores from the October sample (72/11,844). See *Appendix 6* for a summary of missing values treatments by case. In addition, the accuracy of the missing values imputations was checked using list wise deletion for the three main variables, and these results confirmed the accuracy of the imputations. When data for the four main variables (C/DMCI, Negative/Positive Felt Emotion, Relationship Quality and Emotion Regulation) were combined for list wise deletion, the number of cases reduced to 245 (from 275). When the control variables (positive/negative trait affect and emotional stability) were added, the list wise deleted number reduced to 235 (from 271). In order to keep the number as high as possible to test for interactions, the data set with imputed values (rather than with list wise deleted values) was used to test all hypotheses, with an n of 275.

8.4 FACTOR STRUCTURES AND ALPHAS FOR INITIAL MEASURES

The factor structures and alphas for all initial measures are shown in *Table 8.2*

8.5 FACTOR ANALYSES

In addition, I conducted *confirmatory factor analysis* results on the March sample, using structural equation modeling (AMOS 16) for independent, dependent, and moderator variables. In the cases where the published factor structure was not confirmed, I tested the revised or trimmed measures on the October sample. The

purpose of CFA is to: "Identify latent factors that account for the variation and co-variation among a set of indicators" (Brown, 2006, p. 40).

TABLE 8.2
Factor Structure and Alphas for Initial Measures

	Construct	Measure	Factor(s)	Items	Alpha
Independent Variable	Disconfirming & Confirming Managerial Communication	Modified Parent Confirmation Behavior Indicator (Ellis, 2002)	1	25	.95
Dependent Variable	Negative & Positive Felt Emotions	Job Emotions Scale (Fisher, 2000)	Negative Emotions	8	.87
			Positive Emotions	8	.93
Moderator Variable-1	Relationship Quality	Leader Member Exchange-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1996)	1	7	.89
Moderator Variable-2	Trait Positive & Negative Affect	PANAS (Watson et al 1988)	Trait Positive Affect	10	.90
			Trait Negative Affect	10	.84
Moderator Variable-3	Emotion Regulation	Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003)	Cognitive Reappraisal	6	.79
			Expressive Suppression	4	.69
Control Variable	Emotional Stability	2 items from the Ten Item Personality Inventory (Gosling et al 2003)	1	2	.53

8.5.1 CFAs and EFA of Disconfirming Managerial Communication (Independent Variable)

I conducted a series of factor analyses to assess the factor structure that was the best fit to my data. First, I did a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the one factor model as proposed by Ellis (2002) using my March sample. As shown in Model 1 of *Table 8.4*, the CFA revealed that my data was a poor fit to the one factor model, even though the alpha for the scale was .95. Key assumptions in CFA are; (a) that the researcher must specify all elements of the model ahead of time, "based on a strong conceptual or empirical foundation" (p. 40); (b) that the data should be continuous, or at least use a 7-point scale; and (c) that they "have a multivariate normal distribution"

(Byrne, 2010, p.329). Byrne (2010) cites Bentler's guideline that critical ratios (CRs) above 5.00 should be treated as non-normal. According to Brown (2006), the recommended Goodness-of-Fit statistics are RMSEA for parsimony correction, and CFI and TLI for comparative fit. Brown also recommends SRMR fit statistics, but this is not available in AMOS. Brown selected these fit statistics "partly on the basis of their overall satisfactory performance in the Hu and Bentler simulations" (Brown, 2006, p. 86). Interpretation guidelines for each of the three statistics that I used are summarized in *Table 8.3.*

TABLE 8.3
Guidelines for Interpreting Fit Statistics

	Category	Full Name	Meaning	Close Fit	Acceptable Fit	Poor Fit
CFI (Larger the better)	Comparative Fit	Comparative Fit Index	Compares hypothesized model with null model and takes sample size into account	>.95	>.90	<.90
TLI or NNFI (Larger the better)	Comparative Fit	Tucker-Lewis Index or Non-Normed Fit Index	Same as above but compensates for model complexity	>.95	>.90	<.90
RMSEA (Smaller the better)	Parsimony Correction	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	Expressed in dfs so the more parsimonious, the better the fit	<.05	<.08	>.10

Sources: (Byrne, 2010, p.78-81); (Brown, 2006, p. 81-86)

I then tested an alternative, theoretically plausible factor structure (also on the March sample). I tested the two-level factor model proposed by Sieburg (1973) reviewed earlier in Section 3.2 (see Table 3.1). This has two main factors (disconfirming and confirming), with three sub-factors for the disconfirming factor (impervious, indifferent, and unclear). In order to do this, I used her descriptions of the general orientation to the other, the transactional indicators and the internal indicators from her descriptive paradigm to cluster the 25 PCBI items (see *Table 8.5*).

8.5.2 Item Trimming and the Renamed Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (C/DMCI)

As shown as *Model 2 of Table 8.4,* the resulting fit was an improvement over the one factor model (Model 1) but still was not good enough. Based on the

modification Indices *(Appendix 14)* and standardized regression weights (*Appendix 15),* 6 items were removed from the original Parent Confirmation Behavior Indicator (PCBI) and I renamed the trimmed scale, the ***Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator*** or C/DMCI. My rationale for removal of each item (shown in *Table 8.6*) was as follows: two items (11 and 24) were removed because of weak regression loadings (.47 and .41), and four items (3, 8, 16 and 22) were removed due to strong overlap with other items. An additional confirmatory factor analysis, using this model on the October sample, resulted in an even better fit, as shown in *Model 3 of Table 8.4.* The final C/DMCI model and item clusters (see *Table 8.7*) are confirming managerial communication (8 items) and disconfirming managerial communication (11 items). The three disconfirming sub-factors are *Impervious* communication with 4 items, *Indifferent* communication with 4 items and *Unclear* communication, (originally called "Disqualifying" by Sieburg), with 3 items. The fit achieved with this model (Model 3, *Table 8.4*) when tested on the October sample was adequate with a CFI of .91, a TLI of .90 and an RMSEA of .09. Also, as shown in *Table 8.4, Model 4*, when the fit was checked on the combined sample (n=275), statistics improved further with χ^2 at 2.62 (df = 148), CFI at .93, TLI at .91 and RMSEA at .08. I also tested the 4 factor model on both the October and the combined samples (*Table 8.4* Models 5 and 6) and the fit statistics did not improved so I went with the more parsimonious model with one confirming factor and one disconfirming factor that contained three sub-factors with greater degrees of freedom. Descriptive statistics for the revised (19-item C/DMCI) model are shown in *Appendix 16* and the regression weights and alpha for the two-factor, 3 sub-factor 19 item C/DMCI model are shown in *Appendix 17.*

TABLE 8.4
Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (C/DMCI)
Factor Analysis Results

	Factor Structure/Items	Sample (n)	X^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMS EA
1	**1-Factor,** 25 Items	March (134)	3.47	275	.70	.68	.14
2	**2-Factors** 25 Items -Confirming (10) -Disconfirming (**3 Sub-Factors**) • Impervious (7) • Indifferent (4) • Unclear (4)	March (134)	2.44	271	.83	.81	.10
3	**2-Factors:** 19 Items -Confirming (8) -Disconfirming **(3 Sub-Factors)** • Impervious (4) • Indifferent (4) • Unclear (3)	October (141)	2.04	148	.91	.90	.09
4	**2-Factors:** 19 Items -Confirming (8) -Disconfirming **(3 Sub-Factors)** • Impervious (4) • Indifferent (4) Unclear (3)	Combined (275)	2.62	148	.93	.91	.08
5	**4-Factors:** 19 Items Confirming (8) Disconfirming-Impervious (4) Disconfirming-Indifferent (4) Disconfirming-Unclear (3)	October (141)	2.06	146	.91	.89	.09
6	**4-Factors:** 19 Items Confirming (8) Disconfirming-Impervious (4) Disconfirming-Indifferent (4) Disconfirming-Unclear (3)	Combined (275)	2.65	146	.93	.91	.08

TABLE 8.5

Matching of Sieburg's Paradigm to 25 PCBI Items

Response Category	General Orientation	Transactional & Internal Indicators	PCBI Items
Indifference	Denies existence Denies involvement	-Silence when reply expected -Monologue; Absent or inappropriate non- verbal response -Disruptive interjection; interruption -Impersonal language; Physical "distancing" -Avoids self-expression, eye contact	15. Interrupted me during conversations 18. Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject) 19. Used killer glances (put-down looks) 20. Ignored me while in the same room
	Inhibits Communication	-Irrelevant response -Transactional disqualification/ response -Other disjunctions -Unclear communication -Ambiguity; Contradiction -Incongruence, Paradox	11. Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me 12. Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses 13. Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me) 14. Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed
Imperviousness	-Denies Other's Self Experience	Pseudo-confirmation -"mystification" Interpretation -Denial, distortion, substitution of emotional expression -Evaluation	16. Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...") 17. Discounted or explained away my feelings 21. Criticized my feelings when I expressed them 22. Ignored my attempts to express my feelings 23. Belittled me 24. Engaged in negative name calling 25. Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count
Dialogue (Confirmation)	Recognizes & accepts other's self-experience. Seeks involvement & furthers interaction	Speaks when reply expected -Congruent & appropriate response -Listens without interruption -Responds relevantly & directly	1. Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being 2. Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me 3. Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real 4. Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations 5. Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation 6. Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me 7. Allowed me to express negative feelings 8. Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations* 9. Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint 10. Reserved uninterrupted time with me

TABLE 8.6
Item Trimming to Create the Confirming/Disconfirming Communication Indicator C/DMCI

#	Item detail	Reason for Removal
3	Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real	Overlap of #1: Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being.
8	Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations	Overlap (opposite) of #12: Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses.
11	Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me	Low regression weight of .35
16	Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")	Overlap of #17: Discounted or explained away my feelings
22	Ignored my attempts to express my feelings	Overlap of #21: Criticized my feelings when I expressed them
24	Engaged in negative name calling	Low regression weight of -.40 & high kurtosis of 9.59

TABLE 8.7

Final 19-Item, Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (C/DMCI)

INDIFFERENT COMMUNICATION 15-Interrupted me during conversations 18-Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject) 19-Used killer glances (put-down looks) 20-Ignored me while in the same room	**DISCONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION**
IMPERVIOUS COMMUNICATION 17-Discounted or explained away my feelings 21-Criticized my feelings when I expressed them 23-Belittled me 25-Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count	
UNCLEAR (DISQUALIFYING) COMMUNICATION 12-Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses that did not truly respond to me) 13-Gave impersonal responses 14-Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)	
1-Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being 2-Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me 4-Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations 5-Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation 6-Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me 7-Allowed me to express negative feelings 9-Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint 10-Reserved uninterrupted time with me	**CONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION**

8.5.3 CFA of Job Emotions Scale (Dependent Variable)

CFA of the 2-factor (one positive and negative emotion factor) Job Emotions Scale was conducted on the March sample and, as shown in *Table 8.8*, the fit was not great. In order to better understand the poor fit statistics, the standardized regression loadings were examined (Appendix 20), and revealed weak loadings on three negative emotion items as follows: the regression loading for "Worried" was .49, "Embarrassed" was .44, and "Depressed" was .62. The low regression weights for two of these three

negative emotion items were consistent with Fisher (2002), who found a second negative factor that consisted of "Embarrassed" and "Worried". In spite of this, because these two items "*often had sizeable cross-loadings on the first [negative] factor*" (p. 193), for ease of analysis she constructed a single negative emotion scale made up of all eight items. In favour of parsimony, I decided to follow Fisher's example and stay with two (not three) factors in total, one for positive emotion and one negative. However, because the RMSEA statistic was poor (.12), I re-tested the two factor model on the October sample, in which case all the fit statistics (including the RMSEA) were better, as shown in *Table 8.8*. Statistics for the combined sample (n = 275) were χ^2 of 3.05, (df = 103) CFI of .92, TLI of .91 and RMSEA of .09.

TABLE 8.8
CFAs on 2-Factor Job Emotions Scale for Positive and Negative Emotions

Factors/ # Items	Sample (n)	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2 Factors, 18 items	March (134)	2.96	103	.86	.84	.12
2 Factors, 18 items	October (141)	2.01	103	.93	.92	.08

8.5.4 CFA and EFA of Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

I conducted a factor analysis to confirm the two-factor structure of Gross and John's (2003) 10- item Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) using the March sample. As shown in the first row of *Table 8.9*, a poor fit was revealed with a CFI of .83, TLI .78 and RMSEA of .13. Inspection of the standardized regression weights (See *Appendix 24,* '6-Items' column) revealed low weights for items 5, 3 and 1. Also, when the modification indices were checked, a large error co-variance of 40.11 was found between **Item 1** (*"When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) I change what I am thinking about")* and **Item 3** (*"When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger) I change what I am thinking about"*) on the cognitive reappraisal factor.

TABLE 8.9

CFA and EFA on ERQ Model

Factor Structure/Items	# Items	Sample (n)	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2 Factors: Cognitive Reappraisal, 6 items, Expressive Suppression 4 items	10	March (134)	3.16	34	.83	.78	.13
2 Factors: Cognitive Reappraisal 4 items, Expressive Suppression 4 items	8	Oct (141)	1.83	19	.95	.93	.08

I suspect that using the ERQ for the first time in the specific context of a disagreement may be one explanation for the poor fit, as I have not been able to find any published studies in which this context has been specified (and Gross concurs, email communication, January 10th, 2011) I also speculate that the desire to feel more joy or amusement (mentioned in Item 1) does not (in retrospect) seem relevant in the current context and should probably have been removed from the survey. Support for this speculation comes from a recent study in which the ERQ was translated into Italian by Balzarotti, John & Gross (2010). They report that they translated the terms "joy and amusement" from question 1, to "*Felice*" which translates as "happy" or "joyful", "*Contento*" which translates as "pleased" or "content", and "*Buon umore*" which means "humour." These emotion words capture a much broader range of positive emotion than do "joy" and "amusement," and might therefore be less context specific and more applicable to situations such as disagreements.

Hence, I conducted an EFA with items 1 and 3 deleted, and the results *(Table 8.9)* show a significant improvement in fit to the current data with a CFI of .95, TLI of .93 and RMSEA of .08. It should be noted that, contrary to the findings of Gross & John (2003) and possibly because of context specificity in the current study, the expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal factors were correlated (.23, $p < .01$). Hypotheses were therefore tested using the 8-item ERQ on the combined sample.

8.6 SUMMARY OF FINAL MEASURES

In summary, the measures to be used to test my hypotheses are as follows:

Independent Variable:

1. **Disconfirming Managerial Communication:**

Disconfirming managerial communication consisted of a total of 11 items with three sub-factors as follows: *indifferent* managerial communication contained 4 items, *impervious* managerial communication contained 4 items, and *unclear* managerial communication contained 3 items.

Note: Because the independent variable emerged as two distinct factors (confirming and disconfirming managerial communication) rather than the expected single factor, I decided to treat confirming communication as a control variable, which I will discuss in this category.

Dependent Variables:

2. **Negative Felt Emotions:** 9 negative items of the Job Emotions Scale
3. **Positive Felt Emotions** : 9 positive items of the Job Emotions Scale

Moderators:

4. **Emotion Regulation**: The modified 2-factor model, 8-Item model: *Expressive Suppression* (4 items) *Cognitive Reappraisal* (4 items)
5. **Relationship Quality**: LMX-7 (7 Items)
6. **Positive Affect and Negative Affect at Work**: The 2-factor 20-item PANAS, *Positive Affect* (10 items) and *Negative Affect* (10 items)

Control Variables:

7. **Confirming Managerial Communication.** This factor has 8 items
8. **Emotional Stability/Neuroticism**: The 2-Item Emotional Stability Measure from the TIPI.
9. **Direct Interaction Frequency:** Face-to-Face Communication Frequency
10. **Contact Time**: (Reporting Time x Hours)/10
11. **Other :** Employee Gender, Manager Gender, Supervisory or Non-Supervisory

8.7 SUMMARY OF RESULTS FROM FACTOR ANALYSES

A Summary of all the factor analyses results are given in *Table 8.10*

TABLE 8.10

Summary of all Factor Analyses

Factor Structure	Items	Variable (s)	Sample (n)	χ^2	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
1 Factor	25	Disconfirming Managerial Communication	March (134)	3.47	.70	.68	.14
2 Factors, 3 Sub-Factors	25	Disconfirming & Confirming Managerial Communication	March (134)	2.44	.83	.81	.10
2 Factors, 3 Sub-Factors	19	Disconfirming & Confirming Managerial Communication	October (141)	2.04	.91	.90	.09
2 Factors	18	Positive and Negative Felt Emotions	October (141)	2.01	.93	.92	.08
2 Factors	10	Cognitive Reappraisal & Expressive Suppression	March (134)	3.16	.83	.78	.13
2 Factors	8	Cognitive Reappraisal & Expressive Suppression	October (141)	1.98	.97	.96	.06

9. RESULTS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, after summarizing my hypotheses from chapter six, I will report on the correlations, means, standard deviations and reliabilities from the study. Then I will set out the results of my regressions on the dependent variable of negative felt emotion, including my exploration of the interactions. This is followed by a summary of my results of regressions on the dependent variable of positive felt emotion.

9.2 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee *negative* felt emotion.

Hypothesis 2: Disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee *positive* felt emotion.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee *negative* felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low.

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee *positive* felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low.

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee *negative* felt emotion is stronger for expressive suppressors and weaker for cognitive reappraisers.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee *negative* felt emotion is stronger for employees with high negative affect (NA) and weaker for employees with low negative affect (NA).

Table 9.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Scale Reliabilities [a]

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Contact Time	1.77	1.16														
2	Direct Interaction Frequency	5.31	1.86	.23**													
3	Employee Gender	n/a	n/a	.19**	.11**												
4	Manager Gender	n/a	n/a	.07	.06	.11											
5	Relationship Quality	3.48	.83	.23**	.24**	.10	-.06	(.89)									
6	Trait Negative Affect (NA)	1.67	.58	.02	-.03	-.05	.10	-.27**	(.84)								
7	Trait Positive Affect (PA)	3.32	.83	.25**	.13*	.10	-.16**	.40**	-.31**	(.90)							
8	Emotional Stability	5.05	1.41	.08	-.02	-.04	-.01	.25**	-.39**	.24**	(.53)						
9	Disconfirming Managerial Communication	2.74	1.30	-.13*	-.12	-.07	-.04	-.61**	.27**	-.17**	-.12	(.91)					
10	Confirming Managerial Communication	4.81	1.39	.21**	.18**	.04	.05	.70**	-.18**	.31**	.17**	-.67**	(.92)				
11	Cognitive Reappraisal	4.63	1.25	.05	-.10	-.03	.08	.09	-.01	.17**	.35**	-.06	.15*	(.80)			
12	Expressive Suppression	3.71	1.33	-.19**	-.11	-.26**	.01	-.16**	.13*	-.15*	.08	.19**	-.17**	.22**	(.69)		
13	Positive Felt Emotion (PFE)	2.39	1.04	.15*	.17**	.09	-.10	.50**	-.11	.42**	.13*	-.38**	.49**	.10	-.08	(.90)	
14	Negative Felt Emotion (NFE)	2.47	.90	.01	-.11	.04	.07	-.55**	.43**	-.21**	-.30**	.60**	-.57**	-.14*	.14*	-.48**	(.90)

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). n=275 for all variables except contact time (267), Direct interaction and employee gender (273), manager gender (274) [a] Alpha reliability coefficients appear on the main diagonal in parentheses;

9.3 CORRELATIONS, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND RELIABILITIES

Table 9.1 shows the means, standard deviations, correlations and scale reliabilities for the study variables as a whole.

9.3.1 Correlations with Negative Felt Emotion (NFE)

The strongest correlation with negative felt emotion was disconfirming managerial communication (.60, $p < .01$), which provides initial support for Hypotheses 1. Also strongly correlated in the opposite direction was confirming managerial communication (-.57, $p < .01$) providing additional support to Hypothesis 1. The next most highly correlated variable was relationship quality (-.55, $p < .01$) and trait NA (.43, $p < .001$).

9.3.2 Correlations with Positive Felt Emotion (PFE)

The strongest correlation with positive felt emotion, was relationship quality (.50, $p < .01$) followed by confirming managerial communication (.49, $p < .01$), trait PA (.42, $p < .01$) and disconfirming managerial communication (-.38, $p < .01$), which suggests initial support for Hypotheses 5.

9.3.3 Correlations Between Managerial Communication and Positive and Negative Felt Emotion

Correlations between the 11 disconfirming managerial communication items, the 8 confirming communication items, and the two dependent variables of negative felt emotion and positive felt emotion are shown in *Table 9.2.*

Table 9.2: Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations between 2 Managerial Communication Factors, Negative Felt Emotion (NFE) and Positive Felt Emotion (PFE)

Item #		r-NFE	r-PFE	Mean	SD
	DISCONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION				
23	Belittled me	.56**	-.33**	2.20	1.67
25	Made statement that communicated that my ideas didn't count	.50**	-.30**	2.15	1.54
19	Used killer glances (put-down looks).	.49**	-.29**	2.50	1.84
17	Discounted or explained away my feelings	.46**	-.31**	2.81	1.79
12	Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses	.46**	-.28**	3.84	1.75
18	Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)	.44**	-.28**	3.00	1.85
13	Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).	.43**	-.26**	3.30	1.82
20	Ignored me while in the same room	.43**	-.30**	2.01	1.44
21	Criticized my feelings when I expressed them	.40**	-.28**	2.16	1.61
14	Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)	.39**	-.24**	3.14	1.83
15	Interrupted me during conversations	.38**	-.24**	3.18	1.81
	CONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION				
9	Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint	-.52**	.44**	4.56	1.88
2	Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me	-.50**	.47**	4.75	1.79
6	Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me	-.50**	.41**	5.12	1.68
7	Allowed me to express negative feelings	-.46**	.37**	4.83	1.78
5	Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation	-.43**	.36**	5.29	1.57
1	Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being	-.43**	.43**	4.37	1.92
4	Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations	-.37**	.28**	5.15	1.68
10	Reserved uninterrupted time with me	-.35**	.30**	4.36	1.85

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). n=275

"*Belittled Me*" correlated most strongly (positively) with negative felt emotion (.56, $p < .01$) and most strongly (negatively) with positive felt emotion (-.33, $p < .01$). "*Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me*" correlated most strongly with positive felt emotion (.47, $p < .01$), and it was also the second highest negative correlation (-.50, $p < .01$) with negative felt emotion.

9.3.4 Correlations with Discrete Emotions

I explored correlations between managerial communication and specific discrete positive and negative emotions. As shown in *Table 9.3*, disconfirming managerial communication correlated most highly with the negative emotions "Angry" (.53, $p < .01$), "Disgusted" (.52, $p < .01$) and "Unhappy" (.50, $p < .01$). "Optimistic" and "Pleased" had the highest correlations with positive felt emotions (.49, $p < .01$).

TABLE 9.3
Correlations Emotions and Managerial Communication

Item #	Discrete Negative Emotion	R- Disconfirming Managerial Communication	Mean	SD
9	Angry	.53**	2.86	1.41
13	Disgusted	.52**	1.98	1.26
1	Unhappy	.50**	2.79	1.35
12	Frustrated	.48**	3.17	1.34
10	Disappointed	.43**	2.96	1.28
16	Embarrassed	.34**	1.72	.98
14	Worried	.32**	2.46	1.18
15	Depressed	.28**	1.81	1.13
Item #	**Discrete Positive Emotion**	**R-Confirming Managerial Communication**	**Mean**	**SD**
6	Optimistic	.49**	2.57	1.24
7	Pleased	.49**	2.42	1.29
3	Happy	.44**	2.25	1.27
2	Enthusiastic	.41**	2.38	1.32
1	Content	.39**	2.55	1.21
4	Enjoying	.36**	2.25	1.24
8	Proud	.33**	2.56	1.34
5	Liking for Someone or Something	.31**	2,18	1.19

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). n=264

9.3.5 Emotion Regulation

The correlates for cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression from *Table 9.1* are now reproduced in *Table 9.4* for closer examination. Consistent with previous studies, male employees were more likely to use *expressive suppression* as their emotion regulation strategy than were female employees (-.26, $p < .01$).

TABLE 9.4

Emotion Regulation Correlates

	Cognitive Reappraisal	Expressive Suppression
Contact time	.05	-.19**
Direct Interaction Frequency	-.10	-.11
Employee Gender	-.03	-.26**
Manager Gender	.08	.01
Relationship Quality	.09	-.16**
Trait NA	-.01	.13*
Trait PA	.17**	-.15*
Emotional Stability	.35**	.08
Disconfirming Managerial Communication	-.06	.19**
Confirming Managerial Communication	.15*	-.17**
Positive Felt Emotion	.10	-.08
Negative Felt Emotion	-.14*	.14*

Also, expressive suppression correlated negatively with relationship quality (-.16, p< .01), and contact time (-.19, p. < .01), meaning that the longer they had worked with and reported to the manager, the less likely they were to suppress, and the less they suppressed, the better the relationship quality. Expressive suppression also correlated negatively with trait PA, (-.15, p < .05), and positively with trait NA (.13, p < .05), while cognitive reappraisal correlated positively with trait PA (.17, <.01) and emotional stability (.35, p <.01).

9.3.6 Gender

Only two significant correlations with gender were found *(Table 9.1)*: As just mentioned, male employees were more likely to use suppression (-.26, p < .01). In addition, interestingly, male managers were more likely to have employees who reported having trait PA (- .16, p < .01).

9.3.7 Contact Time

Female employees had significantly more contact time (.19, p < .01) with their managers than male employees *(Table 9.1)*. Contact time was correlated positively

with relationship quality (.23, p < .01) and trait PA (.25, p < .01). Contact time was positively associated with reports of confirming managerial communication (.21, p <.01) and negatively associated with reports of disconfirming managerial communication (-.13, p < .05) and suppression (-.19, p. < .01). Finally, contact time was positively correlated with positive felt emotion (.15, p <.05) but not with negative felt emotion.

9.3.8 Direct Interaction Frequency

Direct interaction frequency correlated positively with relationship quality (.24, p <.01), trait PA (.13, p < .05) and confirming managerial communication (.18, p <.01), but the negative correlations with disconfirming managerial communication (-.12, NS) and suppression (-.11, NS) were not significant *(Table 9.1).* Consistent with contact time, direct interaction frequency was also positively correlated with positive felt emotion (.17, p. < 01) but not with negative felt emotion.

9.3.9 Disagreement Topics

As mentioned in chapter eight, a large variety of disagreement topics emerged in the data and the top ten are listed in *Table 9.5.*

TABLE 9.5: Disagreement Topics

Disagreement Topic	# Mentions
My Performance	46
My Manager's Behaviour or Attitude	40
Communication	40
Scheduling, Shifts	38
Hours	30
Compensation	29
Time Off (Vacations, sick leave, breaks)	26
Work Methods, Processes	25
Policies, Procedures	24
Responsibilities	24

The most frequently mentioned disagreement topics were the employees' performance, the manager's behaviour or attitude, the communication between manager and

employee, and issues around scheduling and shifts. A full list of Disagreement Topics is provided in *Appendix 10.*

9.4 HYPOTHESIS TESTS FOR REGRESSIONS ON NEGATIVE FELT EMOTIONS

To test my hypotheses I used multiple regressions and moderated multiple regressions. First, I summarize my tests of all the hypotheses pertaining to the dependent variable of negative felt emotions. These are Hypotheses 1, 3, 5 and 6, summarized earlier in Section 9.2.

9.4.1 Negative Felt Emotion: Main Effects

For a more rigorous test of the main effect predicted by Hypothesis 1, I conducted a multiple regression analysis. In the first step of my first regression I included all the hypothesized control variables except for confirming managerial communication, because I wanted to explore it separately *(Appendix 30, Step 1).* These control variables were: employee gender, manager gender, contact time, direct interaction frequency, co-location, supervisory/non-supervisory, emotional stability, relationship quality, cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression, trait PA, and trait NA (R^2.44). At *Step Two* I added confirming managerial communication (R^2 .50), and at *Step Three* I added my independent variable, disconfirming managerial communication (R^2 .56). The R^2 change of .05 was significant, $p < .001$.

I then ran a second regression *excluding* all those variables that were non-significant, and were also not hypothesized as moderators. The second regression excluded manager gender, direct interaction frequency, co-location, supervisory and trait PA, as shown in *Table 9.6.* At Step 1, I added all the remaining variables (contact time, trait NA, emotional stability, relationship quality, expressive suppression, cognitive reappraisal) except for confirming and disconfirming managerial communication, because I wanted to assess their effects independently. Then at Step 2, I added confirming managerial communication, followed by disconfirming managerial

communication at Step 3. As shown in *Table 9.6*, the final model (Step 3) accounted for 53% of the variance in negative felt emotion. In terms of unique contributions to variance, disconfirming managerial communication accounted for 4.67% ($.216^2$) of unique variance and confirming managerial communication accounted for 1.67% ($-.129^2$) of unique variance.

It is interesting that the Beta for *relationship quality* in Step 1 was, -.48, $p < .001$, however when *confirming managerial communication* is added the Beta drops to -.24, $p < .001$ and when *disconfirming managerial communication* is added it drops even further to -.16, $p < .05$ (see *Table 9.6*).

TABLE 9.6
Hierarchical Regression Predicting Negative Felt Emotion (Excluding non-significant variables)

	Step 1	t-value	Step 2	t-value	Step 3	t-value
Step 1:						
Contact Time	.13**	2.67	.15	3.11	.14**	3.00
Trait NA	.26***	4.88	.26***	5.1	.22***	4.41
Emotional Stability	-.07	-1.19	-.08	-1.58	-.11*	-2.00
Relationship Quality (RQ)	-.48***	-9.29	-.24***	-3.64	-.16*	-2.51
Expressive Suppression	.08	1.47	.05	.97	.03	.69
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.07	-1.3	-.03	- .63	-.03	-.66
Step 2:						
Confirming Managerial Communication			-.35***	-5.52	-.20**	-3.1
Step 3:						
Disconfirming Managerial Communication					.31***	5.03
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	-.42 (.41)		.48 (.47)		.53 (.51)	
ΔR^2			.06***		.05***	
Degrees of freedom	6, 258		7, 257		8, 256	
F (F Change)	31.19		34.15		35.87	

Dependent Variable = Negative Felt Emotion. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients n=265
*** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

Also of note are the changes at each step for *trait NA* and *emotional stability*: while the Beta of trait NA remains high and steady (.26 to .22) throughout steps 1-3, the Beta of emotional stability jumped dramatically and became significant (-.11, $p < .05$) when disconfirming managerial communication was added at Step 3.

Hypothesis 1, that disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee negative felt emotion **IS SUPPORTED.**

9.4.2 Interaction Effects on Negative Felt Emotions

I used moderated multiple regression to test Hypotheses 3, 5 and 6, which claim that the relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion was moderated by relationship quality, emotion regulation, and trait NA. I chose this statistical method because it offers the most robust approach to identifying moderating influences. As recommended by Aguinis (2004, p. 135), I used the omnibus model (including all predicted interactions) and tested whether the R^2 change from Model 1 (all main effects) to Model 2 (the model including all two-way interactions), was statistically significant. Also, all predictor variables were mean-centered (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010). Then I added my predicted interactions between relationship quality, trait NA, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression in Step 2, and the R^2 change of .03 was significant ($p < .05$). Consequently, as recommended by Aguinis (2004), I proceeded to examine the regression coefficients of each of my hypothesized interactions.

TABLE 9.7

Moderated Hierarchical Regression Predicting Negative Felt Emotion: Omnibus Model

	Step 1	t-value	Step 2	t-value
Step 1: Main				
Contact Time	.14**	3.00	.13**	2.96
Trait NA	.22***	4.41	.24***	4.80
Emotional Stability	-.11*	-2.00	-.09	-1.70
Relationship Quality (RQ)	-.16*	-2.51	-.15*	-2.33
Expressive Suppression	.03	.69	.02	.47
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.03	-.66	-.04	-91
Confirming Managerial Communication	-.20**	-3.1	-.22**	-3.13
Disconfirming Managerial Communication	.31***	5.03	.31**	4.77
Step 2: Interactions				
Disconfirming Managerial Communication x Relationship Quality			.12*	-1.93
Confirming Managerial Communication x Relationship Quality			-.13*	-2.08
Disconfirming Managerial Communication x Negative Affect			-.14**	-2.74
Confirming Managerial Communication x Negative Affect			-.04	-.71
Disconfirming Managerial Communication x Cognitive Reappraisal			-.06	-1.27
Disconfirming Managerial Communication x Suppression			.04	.78
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.53(.51)		.56 (.53)	
ΔR^2			.03*	
Degrees of freedom	8, 256		14, 250	
F (F Change)	35.87		22.26 (2.47*)	

Dependent Variable = Negative Felt Emotion. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients and all predictors are mean-centered. n=265; *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

As shown in Step 2 (see *Table 9.7*), the disconfirming managerial communication, x relationship quality interaction was significant (-.12, $p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 3 and the disconfirming managerial communication x trait NA interaction was also significant, (-.14, $p < .01$), supporting Hypotheses 6.

Hypothesis 3, that the positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication, and employee negative felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high, and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low, **IS SUPPORTED.**

Hypothesis 6 that the positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is stronger for employees with high trait negative affect, and lower for employees with low trait negative affect, **IS SUPPORTED**

Even though both the main and interaction effects for expressive suppression, and cognitive reappraisal were in the hypothesized directions (*negative* for cognitive reappraisal, and *positive* for expressive suppression), none of the betas associated with emotion regulation (main or interaction effects) were significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported:

Hypothesis 5 that the positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion will be weaker for employees using cognitive reappraisal as their emotion regulation strategy and stronger for employees using expressive suppression **IS NOT SUPPORTED**

9.4.3 Exploring the Interactions

The relationship quality and trait NA interactions with disconfirming managerial communication were explored using a tool provided by Jeremy Dawson, found at <http://www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm>. In this tool, the slopes are plotted at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator (except for the "binary" worksheet, where the actual values of the categorical moderator are used). The "Low" and "High" values of the IV are also one standard deviation above, and below the mean (Dawson, 2011).

As shown in *Figure 9.1,* when relationship quality was low, negative felt emotion was higher, and there was a stronger positive relationship (i.e., steeper slope) between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion. This suggests that relationship quality mitigates the effects of disconfirming managerial communication on negative felt emotion, and acts as a buffer to it (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

As shown in *Figure 9.2,* while individuals with high trait NA reported higher negative felt emotion, both in the high and low disconfirming managerial communications groups, the difference between low and high disconfirming managerial communication is greatest for the low trait NA group. This suggests that trait NA has *an interference or antagonistic influence* on disconfirming managerial communication, since both predictors (trait NA and disconfirming managerial communication) act on negative felt emotion in the same direction, but the interaction is of the opposite sign (Cohen, Cohen et al., 2003, p. 286).

FIGURE 9.1
Two-way interaction of relationship quality and *disconfirming* managerial communication on negative felt emotion

Variable names:	
e of independent variable:	Disconfirming
Name of moderator:	Relationship Quality
Regression Coefficients:	
Independent variable:	0.22
Moderator:	-0.15
Interaction:	-0.09
Intercept / Constant:	2.518
Gradient of simple slope	0.07
t-value of simple slope	0.99
p-value of simple slope	0.32

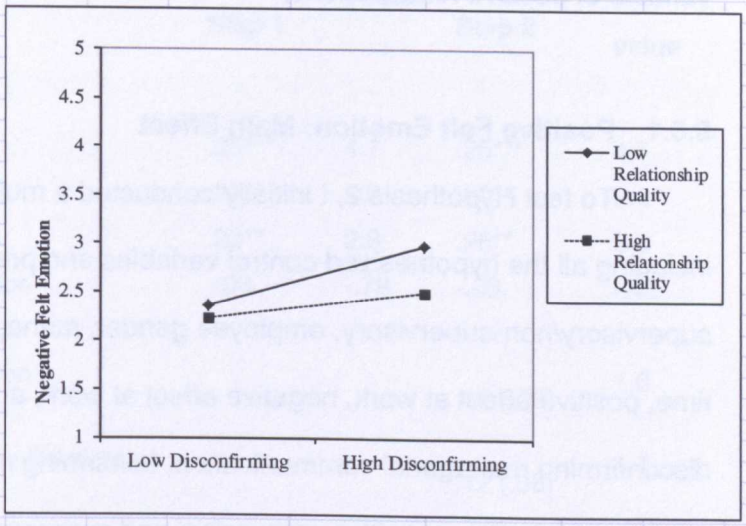


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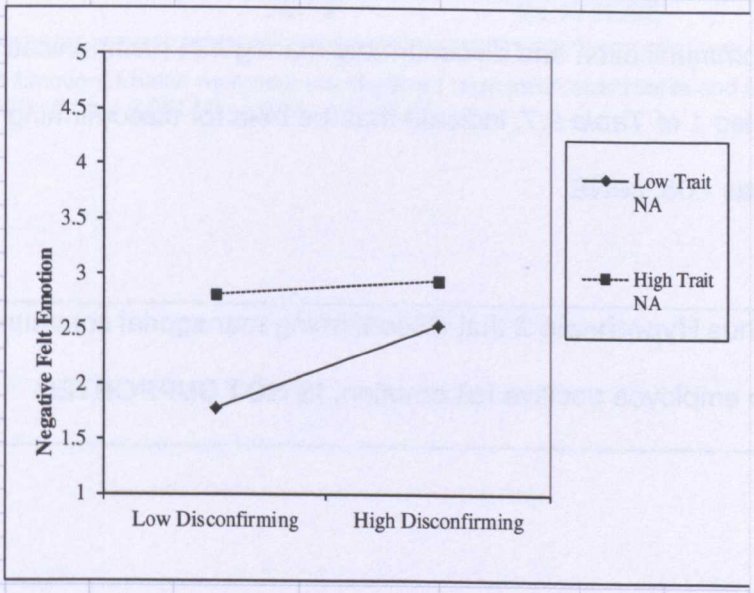
FIGURE 9.2
Two-way interaction of negative affect and *disconfirming* managerial communication on negative felt emotion

Variable names:	
ndependent variable:	Disconfirming
Name of moderator:	Trait NA
ession Coefficients:	
ndependent variable:	0.22
Moderator:	0.36
Interaction:	-0.154
Intercept / Constant:	2.518
Gradient of simple slope	.07
t-value of simple slope	.99
p-value of simple slope	.32



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9.5 HYPOTHESIS TESTS FOR REGRESSIONS ON POSITIVE FELT EMOTION

I will now summarize my tests of all the hypotheses pertaining to the dependent variable of positive felt emotions.

9.5.1 Positive Felt Emotion: Main Effect

To test Hypothesis 2, I initially conducted a multiple regression analysis including all the hypothesized control variables and predictors (co-location, supervisory/non-supervisory, employee gender, manager gender, contact time, face time, positive affect at work, negative affect at work, and emotional stability, disconfirming managerial communication, confirming managerial communication, relationship quality, cognitive reappraisal and suppression). Results for this regression can be found in *Appendix 31.* I then did the regression a second time excluding all the variables that were both non-significant and not part of my two hypotheses. The remaining variables were trait PA, relationship quality, confirming managerial communication and disconfirming managerial communication. The results, shown in Step 1 of *Table 9.7,* indicate that the beta for disconfirming managerial communication was -.06, p=NS.

Thus **Hypothesis 2** that disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee positive felt emotion, **IS NOT SUPPORTED**

TABLE 9.8
Moderated Hierarchical Regression Predicting Positive Felt Emotion

	Step 1	t-value	Step 2	t-value
Step 1: Main				
Trait PA	.25***	4.7	.25***	4.5
Relationship Quality	.22**	2.9	.20**	2.6
Confirming Managerial Communication	.22**	2.9	.26**	3.3
Disconfirming Managerial Communication	-.06	-.79	-.03	-.42
Step Two: Interactions				
Disconfirming Managerial Communication x Relationship Quality			.12 (.08)	1.6
Confirming Managerial Communication x Relationship Quality			.12 (.08)	1.7
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.34 (.33)		.35 (.34)	
ΔR^2			.01	
Degrees of freedom	4, 270		6, 268	
F (F Change)	35.19		24.13 (1.65)	

Dependent Variable = Positive Felt Emotion. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients and all predictors are mean-centered. n=275 *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

9.5.2 Interactions Effects on Positive Felt Emotion

To test Hypothesis 4, I added the disconfirming managerial communication x relationship quality and the confirming managerial communication x relationship quality interactions (*Step 2, Table 9.7*). Both of the relationship quality interactions had a substantial beta of .12 but neither of them reached significance (p = .08)

Hypothesis 4, that the negative relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee positive felt emotion is stronger when perceived relationship quality is high, and weaker when perceived relationship quality is low, **IS NOT SUPPORTED.**

9.6 DIFFERENCES IN COEFFICIENTS FOR POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EMOTIONS

Some interesting differences emerged when coefficients for certain variables were compared with positive versus negative emotions, such as the dependent variables shown in *Table 9.8.* These will be discussed in more depth in Chapter 10.

TABLE 9.9
Differences in Betas for Negative and Positive Felt Emotion

Predictor	Negative Felt Emotion	Positive Felt Emotion
Disconfirming Managerial Communication	.31, p <.01	-.03, NS
Confirming Managerial communication	-.22, p < .01	.26, p < .01
Contact time	.13, p < .01	-.04, NS
Emotional Stability	-.09, (NS)	.02, NS
Trait NA	.24, p < .001	.12, NS
Trait PA	.05, NS	.25 p <.001
Relationship Quality	-.15, p < .05	.20, p <.01

Please refer to *Table 9.7* and Appendix 30 for Negative Felt Emotion results, and *Table 9.8* and *Appendix 31* for positive felt emotion results

It is interesting to note that while confirming managerial communication was significantly related to both negative felt emotion (.22, $p < .01$) and positive felt emotion (.20, $p < .05$), disconfirming managerial communication was only significantly related to negative felt emotion (.30, $p < .001$), but not positive felt emotion (-.10, NS). Also interesting is the fact that trait NA was related to negative felt emotion but not positive felt emotion, while trait PA was related to positive felt emotion but not negative felt emotion.

9.7 HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS SUMMARY

FIGURE 9.3

Summary of Hypothesis Test Results

Hypothesis 1: Disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee negative felt emotion	SUPPORTED
Hypothesis 2: Disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee positive felt emotion	NOT SUPPORTED
Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is weaker when perceived relationship quality with the manager is high, and stronger when perceived relationship quality is low.	SUPPORTED
Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee positive felt emotion is stronger when perceived relationship quality is high, and weaker when perceived relationship quality is low.	NOT SUPPORTED
Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and negative felt emotion will be weaker for employees using cognitive reappraisal as their emotion regulation strategy and stronger for employees using expressive suppression.	NOT SUPPORTED
Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is stronger for employees with high trait negative affect (NA) and lower for employees with low trait negative affect (NA)	SUPPORTED

9.8 POST HOC ANALYSIS USING OCTOBER "NO DISAGREEMENT" SAMPLE

In the first (March) sample, I instructed the "No Disagreement" respondents to skip the questions on confirming and disconfirming managerial communication, emotion regulation and felt emotion. In my October sample, however, I decided to ask those employees who answered that that had not had any disagreements with their managers, to rate their managers on the "conversations" they had had with them instead. As a result, my data set for the "No Disagreement" sample is very small, only 50 respondents after list wise deletion. Consequently, I was not able to conduct CFAs to confirm the factor structure of my independent variable so the following analysis is conducted with caution and with an understanding that the small n might lead to misleading conclusions.

Post hoc, in order to clarify the importance of the disagreement context to the results I obtained, I decided to use this small "No disagreement" sample by way of comparison. Respondents were asked to think about the times they had conversations with their managers and to write down what the conversations were about. They were asked to list all the topics. Respondents then were asked to think about these conversations and indicated how often the manager engaged in each of the 25 confirming and disconfirming communication behaviours. These behaviours were the same ones used in the "Disagreement" sample described earlier. The "No Disagreement" version of the survey can be found in *Appendix 4b.*

The purpose of the post-hoc analysis was to re-run my main hypotheses (Hypotheses 1 and 2) using the small (n = 50) "No disagreement" sample, so as to clarify the role that the "disagreement" context may have played in the results from the "Disagreement sample (n =275). In this first section of the post-hoc analysis, I summarize the characteristics of the "No disagreement" sample, as well as the means, correlations and scale reliabilities for the sample. Then I re-run my hypotheses and

summarize the regression results for the two dependent variables of employee positive and negative felt emotion.

In the second section I conduct T-Tests to identify which of the continuous variables in the "No Disagreement" sample have means that are significantly different from the means in the "Disagreement" sample. Then I explore the different results from the regressions for confirming and disconfirming managerial communication and for employee positive and negative felt emotion.

9.8.1 Sample Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics

Sample characteristics for the "No Disagreement" group in the October sample are shown in *Appendix 7,* column six. The n for the sample was 53 and comprised 26 male and 26 female employees, with 25 male and 28 female managers. Forty of the employees were non-supervisory. Thirteen of the employees worked 20 hours/week or less, 15 worked between 21 and 35 hours and 24 worked 36+ hours per week. Over half the sample, (27) had worked for their managers for less than one year. *Table 9.10* shows the means, standard deviations, correlations, and scale reliabilities for the variables in the October "No Disagreement" sample. Alphas were satisfactory except for the emotional stability measure which was a low .38.

9.8.2 Regressions Predicting *Negative* Felt Emotion Using "No Disagreement" Sample

To test hypotheses 1, that disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee negative felt emotion, using the "No Disagreement" sample, I followed the same procedures as outlined in Section 9.4.1, and as shown in *Appendix 30.* First, I conducted a regression using all hypothesized control variables shown in *Appendix 32.* Then I repeated the regression excluding all those variables that were non-significant and were also not hypothesized as moderators. The results of the regression using only the significant variables, is shown here in *Table 9.11.*

Table 9.10: "No Disagreement" Sample: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Scale Reliabilities[a]

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Contact Time	1.46	.97														
2	Direct Interaction Frequency	5.36	1.69	.09													
3	Employee Gender	n/a	n/a	.10	-.12												
4	Manager Gender	n/a	n/a	.35	-.15	.24											
5	Relationship Quality	3.76	.71	.06	-.02	.02	.12	(.89)									
6	Trait NA	1.58	.53	-.08	.04	-.00	.08	-.46**	(.85)								
7	Trait PA	3.47	.77	.20	.31*	.00	.06	.45**	-.17	(.91)							
8	Emotional Stability	4.26	.83	.07	.01	.12	.11	.13	-.12	.14	(.38)						
9	Disconfirming Managerial Communication	1.84	.81	.03	.07	-.04	-.07	-.62**	.36*	-.31*	-.17	(.93)					
10	Confirming Managerial Communication	5.47	1.18	.07	.05	.14	.23	.79**	-.36*	.39**	.18	-.64**	(.90)				
11	Cognitive Reappraisal	4.37	1.42	.15	.08	-.11	-.09	-.15	-.10	.11	-.08	.04	.10	(.85)			
12	Expressive Suppression	3.38	1.25	-.11	.01	-.13	-.00	-.36**	.14	-.28*	-.17	.30*	-.27	.08	(.74)		
13	Positive Felt Emotion	3.44	.83	.01	-.08	.20	.15	.65**	-.12	.46**	.06	-.28*	.59**	-.05	-.38**	(.91)	
14	Negative Felt Emotion	1.65	.78	.04	.20	-.03	.08	-.62**	.39**	-.30*	-.20	.65**	-.57**	.10	.20	-.31*	(.92)

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). n= 50. [a]Alpha reliability coefficients appear on the main diagonal in parentheses)

Table 9.11
Hierarchical Regression Predicting Negative Felt Emotion for October "No Disagreement" Sample

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1: Control			
Manager Gender	.19	.26*	.24*
Interaction Frequency	.25*	.29*	.25*
Contact Time	.06	.04	.01
Trait NA	.10	.11	.08
Trait PA	-.14	-.17	-.14
Emotional Stability	-.13	-.09	-.08
Relationship Quality (RQ)	-.53**	-.17	-.14
Expressive Suppression	-.06	-.06	-.09
Cognitive Reappraisal	.03	.14	.12
Step 2: Confirming Managerial Communication		-.42*	-.25
Step 3: Disconfirming Managerial Communication			.34*
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.49 (.38)	.54 (.43)	.60 (.48)
ΔR^2		.05*	.06*
Degrees of freedom		9	10
F	4.32	4.64	5.23
(F Change)		4.30*	5.63*

Dependent Variable = **Negative Felt Emotion.** Entries represent standardized regression coefficients and all variables are mean centered n=50; *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

I decided to leave in "Contact Time" in for comparison purposes, as well as Trait PA because, even though it did not reach significance, the β was high at -.18. Results show that for the "No Disagreement" sample, the three significant predictors of employee negative felt emotion were disconfirming managerial communication (.34, $p < .05$), interaction frequency (.25, $p < .05$) and manager gender (.24, $p < .05$). While the β for confirming managerial communication was negative and substantial (-.25), but it did not reach significance. *Note:* I did not test hypotheses 3, 5 or 6 because the sample size was so small.

Hypothesis 1, that disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee negative felt emotion **IS SUPPORTED.**

9.8.3 Regression Predicting *Positive* Felt Emotion Using "No Disagreement" Sample

To test Hypothesis 2 that disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee positive felt emotion, using the "No Disagreement" sample, I followed the same procedures as outlined in Section 9.5.1, and as shown in *Appendix 30.* First, I conducted a regression using all hypothesized control variables shown in *Appendix 32.* Then I repeated the regression excluding all those variables that were non-significant and were also not hypothesized as moderators. Surprisingly, the β for disconfirming managerial communication after all the other variables had been entered, while not significant, was positive (.19, NS). This indicates that as disconfirming managerial communication increased, so too did employee positive felt emotion. To explore this counterintuitive finding I repeated the regression in a different order. I added disconfirming managerial communication into the regression as the first step (*Table 9.12)* and as expected, obtained a significant negative relationship (-.38, $p < .01$) consistent with the correlation table (*Table 9.1*). Then, I added each variable separately to identify when the sign changed from negative to positive, discovering that this happened when relationship quality was added at Step 5 or when confirming managerial communication was added at Step 6, (or vice versa). In both instances the β for disconfirming managerial communication switched to positive.

As shown in *Table 9.12,* Step 6, after all variables had been added, employee positive felt emotion was predicted, not by disconfirming managerial communication as hypothesized, but by relationship quality (.46, $p < .05$) and by Trait PA (.30, $p < .05$). Of note is that while the β for confirming managerial communication was actually slightly higher (.33) than the β for Trait PA, it did not reach significance in the regression.

TABLE 9.12:
Multiple Regression Predicting Positive Felt Emotion, Using "No Disagreement" Sample

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6
Step 1: Disconfirming Managerial Communication	-.38**	-.32*	-.29	-.16	.14	.19
Step 2:						
Employee Gender		.11	.10	.10	.15	.11
Interaction Frequency		-.01	-.00	-.15	-.12	-.14
Contact Time		-.07	-.08	-.15	-.15	-.14
Cognitive Reappraisal		-.13	-.15	-.19	-.02	-.09
Suppression		-.18	-.17	.08	-.04	-.03
Step 3: Trait NA			-.11	-.09	.12	.08
Step 4: Trait PA				.48**	.27*	.30*
Step 5: Relationship Quality					.71***	.46*
Step 6: Confirming Managerial Communication						.33
R^2	.15	.22	.23	.40	.61	.64
(Adjusted R^2)	.13	.11	.10	.28	.52	.55
ΔR^2		.08	.01	.16	.21	.03
Degrees of freedom	1	6	7	8	9	10
F	8.3	2.05	1.18	3.37	6.92	6.96
F Change		.83	.54	11.16**	21.74***	3.48

Dependent Variable = Positive Felt Emotion. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients and all variables are mean centered n=50; *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

Hypothesis 2, that disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee positive felt emotion **IS NOT SUPPORTED.**

9.8.4 Comparing the "Disagreement" and the "No Disagreement" Results

In order to compare the results for the Disagreement and "No Disagreement" samples, I first conducted a T-Test to see if there were any significant differences between the means in the two samples. Results show (*Table 9.13*) that employees who

reported having had disagreements with their managers reported significantly lower relationship quality ($t = -2.14$, $df = 322$, $p<.05$), lower positive felt emotion ($t = -6.73$, $df = 322$, $p < .001$) and lower confirming managerial communication ($t = -3.11$, $df=322$, $p < .01$) during or after conversations with their managers, than those who reported that they had had a disagreement. In addition, employees who reported having had disagreements with their manager had higher means for disconfirming managerial communication ($t = 4.44$, $df= 322$, $p < .001$), negative felt emotion ($t = 5.74$, $df= 322$, $p < .001$), and emotional stability (but this is unreliable since the alpha was so low). There were no significant differences between the means on personality variables of Trait PA, Trait NA, cognitive reappraisal or suppression.

Table 9.13: T-Test Comparisons between the "Disagreement" Sample and the "No Disagreement" Sample

	Levene's Test		T-Test		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig
Relationship Quality	1.52	.21	-2.14	322	.03
Trait NA	.00	.98	.57	322	.57
Trait PA	.02	.90	-1.07	322	.29
Emotional Stability	21.11	.00	3.75	322	.000
Disconfirming Managerial Communication	12.98	.00	4.44	322	.000
Confirming Managerial Communication	3.07	.08	-3.11	322	.002
Negative Felt Emotion	3.72	.05	5.74	322	.000
Positive Felt Emotion	9.70	.00	-6.73	322	.000
Cognitive Reappraisal	.89	.35	1.39	322	.17
Suppression	.84	.36	1.47	322	.14

With list wise deletion the n for the combined "Disagreement" sample size was 272 and the October "No Disagreement" sample was 52

Then I conducted a regression using the combined Disagreement-No Disagreement sample, using disagreement as a dummy variable. As shown in *Table 9.14,* disagreement was a significant predictor of negative felt emotion, (.19, $p < .001$).

Table 9.14
Hierarchical Regression Predicting Negative Felt Emotion for Combined Disagreement and No Disagreement Using "Disagreement" as a Dummy Variable

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1: Control			
Disagreement	.25***	.22***	.19***
Manager Gender	.02	.05	.06
Interaction Frequency	.02	.04	.03
Contact Time	.11*	.11**	.11**
Trait NA	.24***	.24***	.19***
Trait PA	.07	.08	.04
Emotional Stability	-.08	-.09*	-.11*
Relationship Quality (RQ)	-.49***	-.25***	-.17**
Expressive Suppression	.07	.05	.03
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.05	-.01	-.01
Step 2: Confirming Managerial Communication		-.35***	-.21**
Step 3: Disconfirming Managerial Communication			.30***
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.48 (.46)	.53 (.52)	.58 (.56)
ΔR^2		.06	.04
Degrees of freedom	10	11	12
F	27.93	31.52	34.10
(F Change)		35.56***	29.65***

Dependent Variable = **Negative Felt Emotion**. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients and all variables are mean centered n=314; *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

9.8.5 Comparison of Negative Felt Emotion Regressions

The regression results for the significant predictors of **negative felt emotion** were compared, and the results are shown in *Table 9.15.* The "No Disagreement" sample was too small to test for the hypothesized interaction effects, so these are reported again for the "Disagreement" sample only. As shown in *Table 9.15,* in both the "Disagreement" and "No Disagreement" samples, disconfirming managerial communication was positively related to employee negative felt emotion, but the significance was greater in the "Disagreement" sample. Similarly, confirming managerial

communication was negatively related to employee negative felt emotion but while the coefficient was significant in the larger "Disagreement sample" (-.22, $p < .01$) the β of -.25 did not reach significance in the "No disagreement" sample. Also of note is that while Trait NA was a significant positive predictor, and relationship quality was a significant negative predictor in the disagreement context, neither of these two predictors were significant in the "No disagreement" context. Lastly, contact time was important in the disagreement context while interaction frequency was the predictor in the "No disagreement" context. Finally, manager gender emerged as an important predictor, only in the "No disagreement" sample.

Table 9.15: Comparison of Regression Results for Disagreement and No Disagreement Samples on Negative Felt Emotion

	Disconfirming Managerial Communication	DMC x RQ Interaction	Confirming Managerial Communication	CMC x RQ Interaction	Relationship Quality	Trait NA	DMC x Trait NA Interaction	Trait PA	Manager Gender	Interaction Frequency	Contact Time
Dis	.31**	-.12*	-.22**	-.13*	-.15*	.24***	-.14**	.05	.05	.01	.13**
No Dis	.34*	N/A	-.25	N/A	-.14	.08	N/A	-.14	.24*	.25*	.01

*** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$. n for "Disagreement" =258, n for "No Disagreement" = 50. See Tables 9.7, Step 2, for Disagreement data and Table 9.9, Step 3 for No Disagreement data

9.8.6 Comparison of Positive Felt Emotion Regressions

The regression results for the significant predictors of positive felt emotion were compared, and the results are shown in *Table* 9.16 indicating that relationship quality and Trait PA predict employee felt emotion both in the Disagreement and "No Disagreement" context, while disconfirming managerial communication does not. In

addition, although confirming managerial communication does predict employee positive felt emotion in the "Disagreement" sample, in the "No Disagreement" sample, the β while large (.33), does not reach significance.

Table 9.16: Comparison of Regression Results for Disagreement and No Disagreement Samples on Positive Felt Emotion

	Disconfirming Managerial Communication	Confirming Managerial Communication	Relationship Quality	Trait NA	Trait PA
Disagreement (See Table 9.8, Step 1 and Appendix 31	-.06, NS	.22**	.22**	.12, NS	.25***
No Disagreement (See Table 9.12, Step 6)	.19, NS	.33, NS	.46*	.08, NS	.30*

*** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$. n for "Disagreement" =258, n for "No Disagreement" =50

9.9 SUMMARY OF POST HOC AND MAIN ANALYSES

I exercise caution in summarizing this post hoc analysis because the n of 50 is so small. However, the regression results combined with the T-Test data, does offer some insight into the possible role of the disagreement context, which I will explore in the discussion. Following is a summary of the main findings of this post-hoc analysis:

1. Hypothesis 1, that disconfirming managerial communication is positively related to employee *negative* felt emotion was supported in both the "Disagreement" and the "No Disagreement" samples, however the effect is significantly stronger in the disagreement context. In addition, the substantial β (albeit not significant) for confirming managerial communication (-.25) in the "No Disagreement" sample is suggestive of support for the finding that it was a significant negative predictor in the "Disagreement" sample.

2. Hypothesis 2, that disconfirming managerial communication is negatively related to employee *positive* felt emotion is supported by neither the "Disagreement" nor the "No Disagreement" sample

3. Hypothesis 3, suggesting that relationship quality buffers the negative influence of disconfirming managerial communication on employee negative felt emotion was supported for the "Disagreement" sample, but due to the small sample size it was not tested in the "No Disagreement" sample.

4. Hypotheses 4, concerning the moderating influences of relationship quality on employee positive felt emotion, was not supported in the "Disagreement" context and due to the small sample size, was not tested in the "No Disagreement" sample

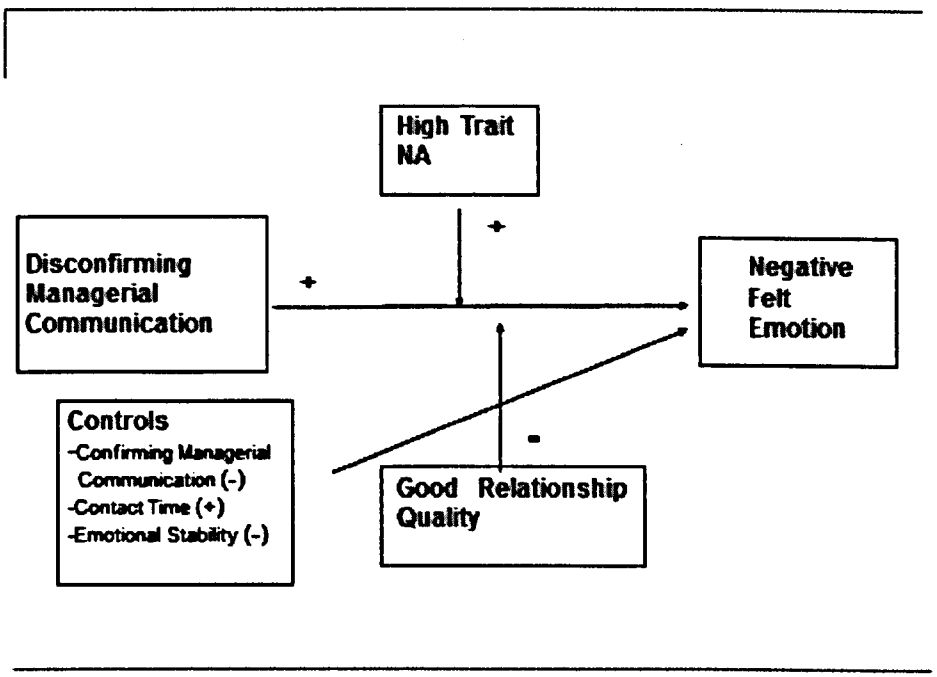
5. Hypothesis 5, concerning the role of emotion regulation on employee negative felt emotion was not supported.

6. Hypothesis 6, that the positive relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion is stronger for employees with high trait negative affect, and lower for employees with low trait negative affect, was supported for the "Disagreement" sample, while again, because of the small sample size was not tested in the "No Disagreement" sample. It is interesting to note, however, that while Trait NA was a significant predictor of negative felt emotion and also interacted with disconfirming managerial communication in the "Disagreement" context, Trait NA had no significant main effect in the "No disagreement" context.

10. DISCUSSION

In summary, the findings support the idea that disconfirming managerial communication triggers affective reactions in the workplace. Employees experience negative emotions in response to disconfirming managerial communication, but these negative emotions are mitigated when they perceive good relationship quality with their manager, and are accentuated if the employee has high trait negative affect. See a summary of the supported hypotheses in *Figure 10.1.* Managers need to pay close attention to how they communicate with their employees during disagreements, and also to the personalities of their employees and the quality of their relationships with them.

FIGURE 10.1
Supported Hypotheses



In this chapter, I first discuss the contributions of my findings to theory and research. Then, I explore the limitations of my study, the possibilities for future research, and the practical implications of my findings. Finally, I draw my conclusions.

10.1 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEORY AND RESEARCH

My study contributes to theory and research in a number of different ways. First, my findings support Affective Events Theory, and the research that has identified negative managerial communication as an important trigger of employee emotions at work. My results also go beyond previous findings, by identifying that two factors, one individual, and one contextual, that affect the extent to which employee negative emotions are triggered: The first factor is the quality of the relationship between the manager and employee, and the second factor is the degree to which the employee has high trait negative affect. My study also makes a contribution, by reintroducing the confirming-disconfirming communication theoretical paradigm into the field of organizational behaviour, and this framework, as well as the measure I have called the Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (or C/DMCI), advances current conceptions of managerial communication, provides avenues for future research, and can be used as a tool for management selection, training, and assessment. I now discuss each of these contributions in more depth.

10.1.1 Disconfirming Managerial Communication is an Emotional Job Event

This study demonstrated that negative, or disconfirming managerial communication was a significant predictor of employee negative felt emotion. This finding supports Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and the findings of previous emotions researchers (Fiebig & Kramer, 1998; Waldron & Krone, 1991). Specifically, my findings support those of Dasborough (2006), who identified that managers' poor communications, and their failure to display awareness and respect for employees, were the most frequently mentioned leader behaviours evoking negative emotion in employees. This failure to display awareness and respect is the essence of the classic construct called "disconfirmation," defined as: "that which does as not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant" (Cissna

& Sieburg, 1981, p.23). My results also showed that disconfirming managerial communication contributed unique variance to negative felt emotion, over and above the effects of the quality of the relationship between the manager and employee. This was an important variable to address because I took a *relational communications* perspective (Rogers & Escudero, 2004), defining interpersonal communication as: "The process of creating social relationships between at least two people by acting in concert with one another" (Fisher & Adams, 1994, p. 18).

10.1.2 Relationship Quality as a Moderator

Results showed that, as hypothesized, while disconfirming managerial communication was positively related to employee negative felt emotion, the effect was mitigated (buffered) by employee perceptions of a high quality relationship with the manager. I now discuss how this finding contributes to theory and research in the three fields of leader behaviour (leader-member exchange), interpersonal communications, and emotions at work. First, my findings contribute to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory by answering Uhl-Bien's (2003) call for more research into the "black-box" of leader-member exchange, to better understand how high quality relationships are developed, and maintained. There has been a movement within LMX, away from the notion of in-groups and out-groups, and towards the more recent focus on Relational Leadership Theory (RLT). According to this theory, managers are called upon to develop and maintain high quality relationships with all employees, so as to build social capital (Uhl-Bien, Graen & Scandura, 2000). Social capital is defined as: "The sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit" (p. 139). I propose three possible underlying mechanisms that might explain my finding that high relationship quality mitigates the negative effects of disconfirming managerial communication. First, there may be a bank of positive interactions built up, such that these negative (disconfirming) managerial communications which are less typical or

frequent, occur within a wider context of generally more positive interaction experiences. Second, a process similar to the "undoing hypothesis" in psychology might be at work (Dimotakis, Scott & Koopman, 2011), in that good relationship quality is "undoing" the negative emotions associated with disconfirming managerial communication. A third possible explanation is that the relationship context changes the employee's interpretation of the meaning of the manager's disconfirming communication. Thus, when the perceived relationship quality is high, the employee's interpretation of the managerial disconfirming communication is: "I guess Bill is just having a bad day!" while when the perceived relationship quality is low, the interpretation might be: "He hates me!"

Second, my findings contribute to theory and research within the field of interpersonal communications. They support relational communication theory, and the subjectivist epistemology, that emphasizes those aspects of the communication that define or redefine relationships, called the *meta-communication* (Henderson, 1987). It is possible that failure to take this meta-communication, operationalized in my study as "relationship quality" into account, may help explain earlier research findings that verbal self-reports of confirming and disconfirming communication, did not match the reports of third party coders (i.e., Dailey, 2005). By bringing "relationship quality", a construct borrowed from LMX research, into the study of interpersonal communication, I have contributed a method by which to operationalize, and more accurately capture, the subtle cues of meta-communication. Also, I found that both relationship quality and contact time (the length of time the employee reported to his or her manager) significantly contributed to the variance in employee negative felt emotion, which supports the findings that the length of time the communicators have been in a relationship makes a difference (i.e., Knapp, Daly et al., 2002; Gottman & Coan, 1998). The amplifying effect of contact time on the negative felt emotion regression in my study, supports the findings of Kacmar et al. (2003), that those employees reporting low levels of relationship quality but who engage in frequent communication with their supervisor, received less

favourable job-performance ratings than those reporting infrequent communication. The authors speculated that the observed amplifying effect of communication frequency was because communications between managers and employees with high quality relationships were more positive and supportive, whereas interactions between managers and low quality LMX employees were more negative, and confrontational. I speculate that the same dynamics are occurring in my study of disconfirming managerial communication. Support for this speculation also comes from the fact that the mean scores for both contact time, and hours worked per week, were higher for those employees who had had disagreements with their managers than for those who had not had any disagreements. Another possible explanation for this finding is that because the percentage of disconfirming communication in "normal" populations is quite low, (Lifshitz, 1979; Heineken, 1980; Garvin & Kennedy, 1986; Dailey, 2005), the longer the employee had worked for the manager, the more likely that managerial disconfirming communication would have occurred. Third, my findings regarding the moderating role of relationship quality adds to Affective Events Theory, depicted earlier in *Figure 2.1* (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Based on my findings, I propose that, in addition to including individual dispositions (discussed next) as moderators between emotional job events and affective reactions, contextual factors (such as relationship quality) should be added to the model.

10.1.3 Trait Negative Affect as a Moderator

My finding that trait negative affect (NA) moderates the relationship between disconfirming managerial communication and employee negative felt emotion, supports both Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and Weiss & Kurek's (2003) expansion of AET, depicted earlier in *Figure 5.2.* My finding can be explained as a dispositional influence during primary emotion appraisal (Time 2 in *Figure 5.2*). From this interpretation, I argue that individuals with high trait NA personalities, who are described as tense, nervous and stressed, are influenced by their behavioural inhibition system or

BIS (Watson et al., 1988). Because they are more sensitive to negative stimuli, they are therefore more likely to be reactive to negative events, and to identify potential threats in their environment, such as disconfirming managerial communication. Watson et al. (1999) describe the BIS as promoting a "vigilant scanning of the environment for potential threats" (p. 830) and researchers in the area of job stress have found that individuals disposed to high negative affect are more likely, in any situation, to experience more distress than low trait NA individuals (Brief et al., 1988). This also explains the smaller, but consistent negative relationship between emotional stability and negative felt emotion, since low emotional stability (high neuroticism) has been found to correlate with high trait negative affect (Larsen, Diener & Lucas, 2002). Similar to high trait negative affect, individuals with high emotional stability "have a low threshold for noticing aversive stimuli and thus for experiencing negative emotion" (p. 76). Using Weiss & Kurek's (2003) model, an alternate explanation for the trait negative affect moderation effect could be that the employee's trait negative affect influenced the *actual* emotional job events themselves (at Time 1 in *Figure 5.2*). This would mean that because high negative affect employees tend to have a more negative demeanour, and are less pleasant to be around, managers tend to communicate in a more disconfirming manner with them. This could also help explain my finding that the group of employees who reported a disagreement with their manager had higher overall trait NA than the group who reported *not* having had any disagreements.

When I explored the interaction between disconfirming managerial communication and trait negative affect in more depth (See *Figure 9.2*), I discovered that the interaction had an "interference" influence on negative felt emotion, since both predictors acted on negative felt emotion in the same direction, but the interaction was of the opposite sign (Cohen et al., 2003.) Also, even though the level of negative felt emotion for the high trait NA group was consistently higher than the level for the low trait NA group, the high trait NA slope was almost flat, while the slope for the low trait NA

group was much steeper, suggesting some sort of ceiling effect. I speculate that the high trait NA group, being more negative most of the time, notice high disconfirming managerial communication less than the low trait NA group, for whom disconfirming managerial communication is experienced more out of the ordinary, or as a violation. The "violation" could be one of three types: It could be a "trust violation", expressed by Fiebig & Kramer's (1998) research as a feeling that "tacit relationship agreements were broken" (p. 552). Alternatively, it could be an example of workplace incivility, defined as a; "violation of workplace norms for mutual respect," (Cortina, Magley, Williams & Langhout, 2001). Finally it could have been an: "expectancy violation," discussed in the interpersonal communication literature (Burgoon, 1993), as when communication expectancies denote enduring patterns of anticipated behaviour, and are based on "communicator, relationship, and context characteristics" (p. 32). This model fits my findings because both relationship quality (relationship characteristic), and trait negative affect (communicator characteristic), interacted with disconfirming managerial communication, to predict negative felt emotion during disagreements (context characteristic). Interestingly, while the communicator characteristic in my study emerges as trait NA, this has been expressed within the interpersonal communication literature as the personality trait of: "relaxed versus tense," with the relaxed pole being characteristic of communication competence (Snavely & McNeill, 2008).

10.1.4 Reintroduction of the Confirming and Disconfirming Managerial Communication Paradigm

A major gap that I identified in the workplace emotions literature was that managerial communication was described too globally, with little description of what was actually said, or how it was said. By reintroducing Sieburg's (1969, 1973) model of confirming and disconfirming communication, and applying it to leader behaviour, my study has contributed a useful and rich conceptual framework, by which to research, and better understand managerial behaviour, and its impact on employees. As shown earlier in *Table 8.7,* the framework offers behavioural descriptions of the two distinct factors of

confirming and disconfirming managerial communication, as well as the three disconfirming sub-factors of imperviousness, indifference and lack of clarity, as follows: A manager communicates *indifference* by interrupting, engaging in monologue, using "killer" (put-down) glances, or by ignoring the employee while he or she is in the same room; *imperviousness* is communicated when the manager belittles the employee, makes statements that communicate that his or her ideas don't count, discounts his or her feelings, or criticizes them when expressed; Finally, a manager is *unclear* (called *disqualifying* by Sieburg), when he or she gives ambiguous responses that do not truly respond to the employee, gives responses that are impersonal, or sends verbal and nonverbal messages that do not match each other. By contrast, when a manager uses *confirming communication*, he or she demonstrates genuine listening, by maintaining meaningful eye contact, by giving appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding, and by giving the employee his or her undivided attention. The manager solicits the employee's viewpoints, uses statements that communicate to the employee that he or she is a valuable human being, and allows him or her to express negative feelings.

Consistent with Sieburg's early theorizing (1969, 1973), my confirmatory factor analysis results showed that, although confirming and disconfirming managerial communication were somewhat negatively correlated (-.67, $p < .01$), the two factors were independent rather than opposite ends of the same pole, as proposed by Dailey (2006). Both factors contributed unique portions of the variance in employee negative felt emotion, with disconfirming managerial communication accounting for 4.4%, and confirming managerial communication accounting for 1.9% of the variance. This finding suggests that future researchers should explore *both* positive and negative managerial communication behaviours, rather than just focusing on either the negative, such as the verbal aggressiveness and abusive supervision constructs (Rancer & Nicotera, 2006; Tepper, 2007), or the positive, such as the comforting or person-centered

communication constructs (Fix & Sias, 2006). In addition, my results show that, while confirming managerial communication was significant in both the positive felt emotion *(Table 9.8)* and the negative felt emotion *(Table 9.7)* regressions, disconfirming managerial communication was only significant in the negative felt emotion regression. Also interesting to note is that, in addition to confirming managerial communication, the only other predictors that were related to both positive and negative felt emotion were relationship quality, and trait positive affect *(Table 9.9).* In addition to introducing the confirming-disconfirming managerial communication paradigm into the field of workplace emotions, my study makes methodological contributions by introducing the 19-item, 2-factor, and 3 sub-factors Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator or C/DMCI for use in future research. This measure has the advantage of being dual-focused towards both positive and negative managerial communication, making access within organizational settings easier than with measures that have a negative focus such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007).

10.2 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations of my study and suggestions for future research involve issues pertaining to: i) Measurement of confirming and disconfirming managerial communication in a disagreement context, and questions pertaining to its generalizability to "No Disagreement" contexts. ii) Recall over a multitude of disagreements not just one. iii) Measuring emotion regulation in a specific context rather than as a personality trait: iv) Exclusion of other personality traits and downstream consequences. v) Relational communication and development. vi) Individual differences in abilities to differentiate, label, and recall emotions. vii) Common method bias, generalizability, and claims of causality.

10.2.1 Measurement of confirming and disconfirming managerial communication in a disagreement context

I decided to focus on recalled disagreements as a method of emotion elicitation (discussed in Section 7.3), following the work of Gottman et al (1977), Fairhurst (1989) and others, because goal relevance and incongruence were likely to be higher during disagreements than during general conversations, thereby triggering more emotion. Setting the study within a disagreement context, however, suggests a possible limitation as these findings may not be generalizable to those communications between managers and employees that do not involve disagreement. It might be argued that it was the disagreement itself that was the emotional job event, rather than the way it was handled by the manager, i.e. as operationalized by my independent variable, confirming and disconfirming communication. In order to explore this limitation, I conducted a post-hoc analysis on the small "No Disagreement" sample that I obtained in my second round of data collection. T-Tests revealed that when compared to the "Disagreement" sample, the "No Disagreement" sample had higher means for relationship quality, employee positive felt emotion and confirming managerial communication, and also lower means for disconfirming managerial communication and *negative* felt emotion (*Table 9.13*). While caution must be exercised due to the small sample size, the post hoc analysis did lend some support for the generalizability of the findings to general conversations, in terms of predicting employee *negative* felt emotion, however results were inconclusive in terms of the generalizability to employee *positive* felt emotion. First, I discuss the post-hoc analysis for negative felt emotion, then I discuss the results for positive felt emotion and finally I compare the results for confirming managerial communication.

Disconfirming managerial communication was significantly related to employee *negative* felt emotion (.34, $p < .05$), supporting hypothesis one, and suggesting that it is in fact the managerial communication that is the emotional job event, whether or not a disagreement occurred (*Table 9.14*). In addition, the βs for relationship quality (-.14), and confirming managerial communication (-.25) followed the patterns found in the

disagreement sample, even though they did not reach sufficient levels of significance. As discussed in Chapter four, while identity, relational and instrumental goal types tend to come into play in a variety of different situations (including communication episodes without disagreement), complaint or "disagreement" situations are more complex in that they also trigger dominance-persuasion type goals (i.e. Graham et al, 1980; Coupland et al 1991). Emergence of dominance-persuasion goals (for the manager and/or the employee) during disagreements might also help explain why trait negative affect emerged as a significant predictor and moderator in the "Disagreement" sample but the same was not found in the "No Disagreement" sample. I would argue that less threat was perceived in the "No Disagreement" sample hence the behavioural activation and inhibition systems of the employee were not activated to the same degree (i.e. Watson et al 1999).

Consistent with the "Disagreement" sample, both trait PA and relationship quality were significant positive predictors of employee *positive* felt emotion during conversations with the manager (See *Table 9.15*). Also, though the finding of non-significance for disconfirming managerial communication as a predictor of positive felt emotion was consistent with the "Disagreement" sample, the β was quite different in that it was both sizeable (.19) and had a positive (not negative) sign! When I explored this anomaly, it appeared that the introduction of relationship quality and confirming managerial communication into the analysis led to the sign switching from negative to positive. More research is clearly needed in this area.

In the "Disagreement" sample, confirming managerial communication emerged as a significant predictor of employee positive felt emotion and it was expected that this would also be the case for the "No Disagreement" sample. However, again while the β was sizeable (.33) and larger than for the "Disagreement" sample (.22, $p < .01$) it did not reach accepted levels of significance, suggesting a sample size limitation.

10.2.2 Recall over a multitude of disagreements not just one.

Another limitation of my study is that rather than asking employees to recall as specific disagreement with their manager, I asked them to "think about the times they had had disagreements (conversations) with their managers." I asked them to think back over a multitude of disagreements (conversations), rather than to one specific event because I did not want to prime them to think about one that necessarily elicited emotion, nor did I want them to select an event that was perhaps trivial or inconsequential. However, the problem might have emerged as this generalized retrospective judgment of their conversations is likely to become more sanitized with the potential range of positive and negative events lost. Also, it has been argued that retrospective judgment of emotion is likely to tap into *beliefs* about emotions rather than the emotions themselves (Robinson & Clore, 2002).

10.2.3 Measuring Context-Specific Emotion Regulation

My study was the first to use the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003) to explore emotion regulation within a *particular context,* rather than as a general trait. My hypothesis that emotion regulation would moderate the relationship between managerial communication and negative felt emotion was not supported in the regression. However, the regression coefficients were in the hypothesized directions (i.e., positive for expressive suppression and negative for cognitive reappraisal) and my correlation results (*Table 9.4*) was consistent with prior research in a number of ways: Expressive suppression scores were higher for males, and correlated negatively with relationship quality and trait PA. Also, as expected, suppression correlated positively with trait NA, and cognitive reappraisal correlated positively with both trait PA, and emotional stability (Gross & John, 2003). In light of these correlational results, I propose that two possible limitations of my study in regard to emotion regulation are; a) that I only measured the last two emotion regulation strategies in the process model, and b) that

the emotions elicited were not strong enough to require emotion regulation. I now expand.

First, I failed to explore the possibility that respondents were actually using more antecedent-focused emotion regulation strategies that were not included in the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ). For example, employees may have chosen to avoid having disagreement discussions in the first place (i.e. situation selection), or they may have agreed with the manager, even though they did not really want to (i.e., situation modification). In future research, a better alternative to the ERQ might be the survey designed by Diefendorff et al. (2008). This survey described all of Gross' (1998b) five points at which emotions might be regulated (See *Figure 5.3*), instead of just focusing on the final two (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). In their study, employed students were asked to indicate the extent to which they had used each of five strategies at work in the past 30 days. They were then asked to complete a second survey in which they provided a general, written description of one circumstance that had prompted them to use each strategy, what they felt just before using the particular strategy, and descriptions of the circumstances that preceded their use of each emotion regulation strategy. Diefendorff et al. (2008) found that 44% of emotion regulation events during interactions with managers were through cognitive reappraisal, 18% were through suppression, 17% were through attentional deployment, 9% were by situation modification, and 12% was though situation selection. These findings suggest that in 38% of the events employees used emotion regulation strategies were neither cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression, suggesting that future research concerning emotion regulation in the workplace should not be limited to only these last two strategies.

The second possible limitation in this area is that the emotions elicited were perhaps not strong enough to require emotion regulation. If this were the case, instead of answering the required "state" question pertaining to the particular situation of disagreements with their manager, they perhaps answered the more general "trait"

question, pertaining to how they regulate their emotions *in general* (Srivastava, Tamir, McGonigal, John & Gross, 2009). This speculation is supported by the generally low scores I obtained for negative felt emotion *(Appendix 19)*, with a 2.47 (on a 5-point scale) average of all eight negative felt emotion scores, and the highest mean score for "frustration" at only 3.17. Additional support for this speculation comes from a recent study by Diefendorff, et al (2008) who found that at work, high activation negative emotions such as "anger" were not as frequent as moderate activation emotions such as "frustration," concluding that "high activation negative emotions either do not occur often at work, or they occur but are not regulated" (p. 506). In order to overcome this limitation in future research, I would proceed in the following manner: First, I would ask respondents to select one disagreement with their manager that was *non-trivial,* rather than asking them to think about their disagreements in general. Using the term "non-trivial" would, hopefully, direct them to recall disagreements that were goal-relevant, thereby eliciting stronger recalled emotions. Focusing on a non-trivial disagreement discussion would allow me to collect information on nature of the disagreement, as well as whether it was resolved to their satisfaction. Doing this would also enable me to identify whether the topic of the disagreement made a difference, i.e. whether it was related to task completion or to the relationship between them.

10.2.4 Other Personality Traits and Downstream Consequences.

In future research, it would be advisable to also measure the other personality traits identified by Weiss & Kurek (2003) such as *locus of control, self-efficacy,* and *self-esteem,* which might come into play during secondary emotion appraisal. Given that the disconfirming communication construct is defined as; "that which does not endorse, recognize or acknowledge another person as valuable and significant" (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981, p. 23), self-esteem in particular would be important to include. In addition to including other personality variables, future research should also include the impacts of disconfirming managerial communications on outcomes such as organizational

citizenship behaviour, and employee intentions to quit. Adding these downstream variables would strengthen arguments in support of managers reducing their disconfirming communication behaviours, and increasing their confirming communication behaviours. Also, with a larger sample, it might be possible to explore the differential impacts that indifferent, impervious and unclear communications have on employee felt emotions

10.2.5 Relational Communication and Development

Two other limitations of the study are that given the relational communication perspective that I was taking, I would have preferred to have collected; a) the perceptions of both manager and employee and b) collected relationship quality data at different points of time. Obtaining the manager's perspective would help answer questions pertaining to ways in which the employee's personality or communication behaviour might be influencing the manager's confirming and disconfirming communication. For example, it is possible that employee who is a disconfirming communicator might trigger more disconfirming communication in the manager, similar to the concept of *emotional contagion*. Future studies should collect data from both employees and managers. In addition, since relational communication is considered to be emergent, measures should be taken at different times during the relationship so that relationship development can be into account more fully. Even though I did have a measure of "contact time" and it was a significant predictor, future research would benefit from data collection at different times, thereby allowing comparisons between longer and shorter employee-manager relationships, as suggested by Uhl-Bien et al (2000) and Uhl-Bien (2006).

10.2.6 Individual Differences in Emotion Recall

Although it is most common to ask participants in a study to report emotions retrospectively (Briner & Kiefer, 2005), and verbal report is still an effective method for

studying emotional experience, even with all of its failings, (Barrett, 2006), these reporting methods are less accurate than contemporaneous measurement (Mauss & Robinson, 2010). I agree with Briner & Kiefer (2005) that because I asked employees to recall their disagreements with their managers, I am actually measuring the employees' *beliefs* about their emotions rather than their actual emotions. Based on this limitation, it would be worthwhile to replicate the study reporting on current experiences of disagreements, either through the use of diaries (Searle, 2011), or through recordings of live disagreement discussions, after which conversations (Fairhurst, 1989) and emotions are rated by third parties using systems like the Specific Affect Coding System (Coan & Gottman, 2007), and the affect rating dials (Ruef & Levenson, 2007).

10.2.7 Common Method Bias, Generalizability and Causality

I now discuss those limitations pertaining to my chosen methodology: One limitation has to with the decision to use a one-time employee survey. Common method bias can result when all the data is collected from a single source, and at the same time. A review of my surveys *(Appendices 1 & 4)* reveal that, to minimize this possible bias, I used some of the procedural remedies recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al (2003). For example, there was a psychological separation through the variation of the response formats, and the use of different scale endpoints for predictor and criterion variables. The potential risk of evaluation apprehension and of participants responding in socially desirable ways was low to zero because they were completely anonymous, and they were completed at a university during an evening course, not in their workplace or near their manager. This being said however, the best approach to overcoming this possible limitation (as mentioned earlier), is that data should be collected at different times during the manager-employee relationship.

Another possible limitation pertaining to my methodology is that because the survey respondents were all employed adults, taking university courses in the evening,

results may not be generalizable to within-company populations. Half of the current sample worked part time, and 44% had reported to their current manager for one year or less. In future research, it would be advisable to collect data from employees who are working within an organization, where there would be a larger proportion of full-time employees, and a greater number of employees with longer tenure with their managers. On the other hand, if disconfirming managerial communication is related to employee turnover, the current sample may in fact have provided insights, that a within-company sample might not. Another possible issue pertaining to generalizability is the fact that cultural differences were not taken into account since these have been found to be important in both the communication competence literature (Spitzberg & Brunner, 1991) and the emotion regulation literature (Butler et al 2007). A final limitation of the study is that even though Affective Events Theory assumes causality, my results cannot.

10.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

There are a number of practical implications from these findings. First, I discuss the practical implications for organizations as a whole, and then I address implications for managers.

10.3.1 Organizational Implications

First, at the organizational level, negative felt emotions have been related to outcomes such as affective commitment, helping behaviours and intentions to leave (Fisher, 2002), as well as withdrawal behaviour and erosion of trust in the organization during organizational change (Kiefer, 2005). Improved manager-employee relationship quality has been found to be significantly and positively related to a large number of variables such as increased job performance, reduced turnover intentions, interactional justice perceptions, and acceptance of organizational changes (Werbel & Henriques, 2009; Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997). My findings imply that organizations should invest in training their managers to be less disconfirming, and more

confirming communicators, especially during disagreements with their employees. Management training offers many benefits to organizations (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009), and social, emotional and interpersonal skills, such as interpersonal communications, have been found to be both trainable, as well as related to leader effectiveness (Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Cole & Latham, 1997). In addition to training and development, the Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (C/DMCI) could also be used for recruitment, selection, promotion, and appraisal of managers, and could be used, for example, as part of the company's 360-degree feedback process. Also, because the C/CMCI is not focused towards negative communication, it should be less threatening and therefore easier for researchers to gain permission for distribution within organizations

10.3.2 Managerial Implications

Many managers are unaware of their own communication behaviours and how these might be inadvertently triggering negative emotions in their employees. Introducing managers to the confirming-disconfirming communication paradigm, and the behaviours associated with being confirming, indifferent, impervious and unclear, could raise their awareness of their own communication behaviour and its potential to positively and negatively impact others. Simply having managers think about disagreements they have had with employees, and asking them to do a self-assessment using the C/DMCI would be beneficial and enlightening because, for example, the manager may not have thought about aspects such as imperviousness, i.e., the fact that he or she might discount or explain away another person's feelings during a disagreement discussion. In addition, managers are often unaware of how they are coming across, or the impact of their verbal or non-verbal communication on others' emotions. Therefore, it would be helpful if managers asked their employees to complete the C/DMCI on him or her in order to provide feedback on the communication behaviours that they observe. There are also practical implications for managers learning that, if they take the time to build a positive

relationship with their employees, they will react less negatively during stressful times when perhaps they do not communicate as well. Finally, managers can benefit from the finding that trait negative affect influences emotional reactions to disconfirming communication. This is of practical use because it will help them understand why two employees might react quite differently to a similarly negative communication. It may also help them understand why they find themselves being more of a disconfirming communicator with one employee, who perhaps has high trait negative affect and is tense and nervous, than with another who has low trait negative affect and is calm and relaxed. Finally, the finding that confirming communication increases positive felt emotion (and decreases negative felt emotion) while disconfirming communication only increases negative felt emotion is useful, because it guides managers to avoid disconfirming behaviours such belittling the employee, but also to increase confirming behaviours such as asking the employee's opinion, and demonstrating that he or she is genuinely listening. The Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator could also be useful during performance appraisal discussions with employees where some disagreement is expected, and during coaching and counseling sessions with employees (Whetten & Cameron, 2010).

10.4 CONCLUSIONS

This study brings together research from the disparate fields of interpersonal communications, emotions, and leader behaviour to reintroduce the disconfirming-confirming communication construct (and measure) as a way of understanding managerial communication as an emotional trigger for employees. Using the three conceptual frameworks of Affective Events Theory (from the workplace emotions literature), relational communications (from the interpersonal communications literature), and leader-member exchange (from the organizational behaviour and leadership literature), previous research is both supported and extended to provide a more complex understanding of the specific communication behaviours involved in both confirming, and

disconfirming managerial communication. The study suggests that while disconfirming managerial communication is a predictor of negative felt emotion during both disagreements and general conversations with employees, confirming managerial communication is related (at least during disagreements) to both negative felt emotion (negatively) and positive felt emotion (positively). This suggests that in order to be effective, managers need to use both more confirming behaviours but also fewer disconfirming ones.

The results emphasize that if managers have good relationships with their employees, when they do communicate in a disconfirming manner, particularly during disagreements, then their existing positive relationship will act as a buffer to the negative emotional impacts that typically are associated with disconfirming communication. Also, the study highlights that the impact of a manager's interpersonal communication depends, not only on his or her ability to build a relationship with the employee, as well as to increase confirming and decrease disconfirming behaviour, but also on whether the employee has a high or low negative affect personality. The study finds that while employees with high trait negative affect personalities, who tend to be more tense and nervous, experience more negative felt emotion in general, it is the calmer and more relaxed employees, those with *low* trait negative affect, for whom disconfirming managerial communication behaviour, will have the most impact.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: March Questionnaire

TED ROGERS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT RYERSON UNIVERSITY

OU Business School

INTRODUCTION

The survey has five sections: Part 1 asks for background information, Part 2 asks you to describe your relationship with your manager and Part 3 explores what happens when you have disagreements with your manager. Part 4 asks you about how you generally feel at work and your personality, and part 5 is a single item asking you to consider participating in Stage 2 of the study

NOTE: YOUR "MANAGER" REFERS TO YOUR CURRENT BOSS

PART 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. **Do you currently work full or part-time? Yes____ No____**

If you answered "No" please hand your survey back to the researcher.

2. **If Yes, on average, how many hours a week do you work? _____**

3. **How long have you reported to your current manager?**

Less than 6 months ____
Six months to one year ____
1-2 years ____
3-4 years ____
5 to 10 years ____

More than 10 years ____

4. **In the past 4 weeks, approximately how many times did you communicate with your manager either face-to-face or by phone?**

More than twice a day ____
About twice a day ____
About once a day ____
About twice a week ____
About once a week ____
Less than once a week ____
Not once ____

5. **Do you and your manager work in the same location?** Yes____ No____

6. **Your Gender?** Male____ Female____

7. **Your Manager's Gender?** Male____ Female____

8. **Do you supervise other employees?** Yes ___ No____

PART 2: YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR MANAGER

9. **Please circle the response that best reflects your views:**

Do you know where you stand with your manager... do you usually know how satisfied your boss is with what you do?

Rarely **Occasionally** **Sometimes** **Fairly Often** **Very Often**

How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit **A Little** **A Fair Amount** **Quite a Bit** **A Great Deal**

How well does your manager recognize your potential?

Not at All **A Little** **Moderately** **Mostly** **Fully**

Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**

Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your boss has, what are the chances that he/ she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**

I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Neutral** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?

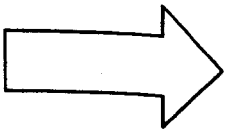
Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective

PART 3: DISAGREEMENTS WITH YOUR MANAGER

10. Please indicate whether or not you have ever had any disagreements with your manager? Disagreements could be about anything non-trivial such as budget, communication, work style, decision-making, responsibilities, compensation, performance, hours, priorities, treatment of staff, other.

Yes_____ No_____

If you answered "No" Please skip to PART 4, Question 15 page 7



10. If you answered **"Yes"** think about the times you had disagreements with your manager. What were the disagreements about? Please list all the topics

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Think about these disagreements. We would like to know more about what happened. Please indicate how often your manager engaged in each of the behaviours:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DURING DISAGREEMENTS WITH MY MANAGER, HE/SHE.....	Never						Always
1. Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being							
2. Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me							
3. Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real							
4. Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations							
5. Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation							
6. Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me							
7. Allowed me to express negative feelings							
8. Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations							
9. Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint							
10. Reserved uninterrupted time with me							
11. Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me							
12. Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses							
13. Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).							
14. Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)							
15. Interrupted me during conversations							
16. Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")							
17. Discounted or explained away my feelings							
18. Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)							
19. Used killer glances (put-down looks)							
20. Ignored me while in the same room							
21. Criticized my feelings when I expressed them							
22. Ignored my attempts to express my feelings							
23. Belittled me							
24. Engaged in negative name calling							
25. Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count							

12. To what extent did you experience each of the following emotions during (or after) these disagreements with your manager? Please use the following scale:

1 Not at all **2 a little** **3 moderately** **4 quite a bit** **5 a great deal**

_____worried	_____ enthusiastic
_____ Angry	_____frustrated
_____content	_____ happy
_____depressed	_____enjoying something
_____disgusted	_____ liking for someone or something
_____ disappointed	_____optimistic
_____unhappy	_____pleased
_____embarrassed	_____proud

13. Now I would like to ask you some questions about how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions during disagreements with your manager.

The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your *emotional experience*, or what you feel like inside. The other is your *emotional expression*, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7

strongly disagree	**neutral**	**strongly agree**

DURING DISAGREEMENTS WITH MY MANAGER:

1. ___ When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) *I change what I am thinking about*

2. ___ I keep my emotions to myself

3. ___ When I want to feel less *negative* emotion (such as sadness or anger) *I change what I am thinking about*

4. ___ When I am feeling *positive* emotions, I am careful not to express them

5. ___ When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself *think about it* in a way that helps me stay calm

6. ___ I control my emotions by not expressing them

7. ___ When I want to feel more *positive* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation

8. ___ I control my emotions by *changing the way I think* about the situation I'm in

9. ___ When I am feeling *negative* emotions, I make sure not to express them

10. ___ When I want to feel less *negative* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation

Are the answers you just gave typical of how you tend to regulate and control your emotions *in general*, or are they specific to your relationship with your manager? (*Please check only one*)

Typical_____ Specific to how I regulate my emotion with my manager_____

PART 4: HOW YOU GENERALLY FEEL AT WORK & YOUR PERSONALITY TYPE

12. This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you *generally feel this way at work,* that is, how you feel on the average while at work. Please use the following scale:

1 **very slightly or not at all** | **2** **a little** | **3** **moderately** | **4** **quite a bit** | **5** **extremely**

_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____distressed	_____alert
_____excited	_____ashamed
_____upset	_____ inspired
_____strong	_____nervous
_____guilty	_____determined
_____scared	_____attentive
_____hostile	_____jittery
_____enthusiastic	_____ active
_____proud	_____afraid

Below are listed a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you (*in general, not necessarily at work*). Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

Disagree Strongly	Disagree moderately	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree moderately	Agree strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I see myself as:

1. _____ Extraverted, enthusiastic.
2. _____ Critical, quarrelsome.
3. _____ Dependable, self-disciplined.
4. _____ Anxious, easily upset.
5. _____ Open to new experiences, complex.
6. _____ Reserved, quiet.
7. _____ Sympathetic, warm.
8. _____ Disorganized, careless.
9. _____ Calm, emotionally stable.
10. _____ Conventional, uncreative.

13. Do you have any comments or suggestions regarding the survey you just completed?

_____

_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY 

PART FIVE: STAGE TWO OF THIS STUDY- ARE YOU INTERESTED?

I am planning a second stage of this study in which an employee and his or her manager actually engage in a twenty minute one-on-one disagreement discussion and then complete a survey, similar to this one, immediately after the discussion.

This is a research method that has been very successfully used with couples, friends, physicians/patients, and parents/children, but it has never been used to explore manager-employee relationships.

I am attempting to pioneer this method in the workplace, and with you and your manager's participation and support, I would be able to identify best practices that could help improve the outcomes of manager-employee disagreements as well as the quality of their working relationship.

If you are willing to explore this, I will email you an information package about the study for you to give to your manager. Then, if you both agree to proceed, we will meet to discuss the study in more detail and I will give you my confidentiality commitments. Rest assured that the process will be completely confidential and no names or companies will be divulged at any time. Also, you or your manager can opt out at any time if either of you change your mind.

Because of the expected time commitment (approximately 30 minutes for the preliminary meeting, 20 minutes for the actual disagreement discussion, and 30-50 minutes for survey completion and debrief), you and your manager would each receive a $50 gift certificate to thank you for your help. Also, when the results have been summarized and analyzed, I will provide both of you with a brief research report.

If you would be willing to consider participating, or simply would like to find out more about the study, please provide me with **your email address below:**

Email_____

Alternatively, you can contact me by phone at 416-979-5000, ext. 6751
Thank You

Pat

Pat Sniderman, Professor,
Organizational Behaviour and Human Resources Management, Ted Rogers School of Business Management

Appendix 2: March Consent Form

Ryerson University

Consent Form,

Dear Participant

If you currently hold a full or part time job, you are being asked to participate in a research study. Before you give your consent to be a volunteer, it is important that you read the following information and ask as many questions as necessary to be sure you understand what you will be asked to do.

Title: The Emotional Impacts of Disagreement Discussions between Managers and Employees

Investigators:
The principal investigator is Pat Sniderman, Professor of Organizational Behaviour, Ted Rogers School of Management, Ryerson University. She is working with Professor Mark Fenton-O'Creevy and Dr. Rosalind Searle from the Open University Business School in the UK and with Dr. Nina Cole at Ryerson University

Purpose of the Study:
The purpose of the study is to explore your views and personal experiences relating to your own discussions with your current manager over topics which you disagree. Students are being recruited from eight continuing education classes at Ryerson University

Description of the Study:
This confidential survey that has five short sections: Part 1 focuses on background information and Part 2 asks you to briefly describe your relationship with your manager. Part 3 asks you to describe your disagreement discussions with your manager. Part 4 explores how you generally feel at work and Part 5 explores your interest in stage two of this study. This should take 20-30 minutes to complete.

Risks or Discomforts:
Some of the questions in this survey ask you about your emotions during disagreements with your manager, possibly bringing back unpleasant memories. If you begin to feel uncomfortable you may discontinue participation, either temporarily or permanently and this will have no implications whatsoever for your course at Ryerson U. Also, if survey completion causes any issues to arise that might involve harm to you or another person you are encouraged to make an appointment at the Ryerson University Centre for Student Counselling and Development at 416-979-5195. There is no fee for this service.

Voluntary Nature of Participation:
Participation in this study is voluntary. Your choice of whether or not to participate will not influence your future relations with Ryerson. You may discontinue participation at any time during questionnaire completion and you may refuse to answer any particular question or stop participation altogether.

Benefits of the Study:
Findings from this study have the potential to help organizations better understand the impacts that managerial behaviour have on employees and their well being and can be used to train managers in how to handle disagreements in constructive ways. If you would like to receive a copy of the study results, please email Pat Sniderman at psnider@ryerson.ca

Confidentiality:
No one will have access to your completed survey except for the principal researcher, Professor Pat Sniderman. *The data will be aggregated for analysis and presentation so that NO individual will be identifiable.* In order to guarantee confidentiality, please do not disclose any information that has involved, or might involve litigation.

Questions about the Study:
If you have any questions about the research now, please ask. If you have questions later about the research, you may contact Pat Sniderman 416-979-5000 ext 6751 or by email at psnider@ryerson.ca
If you have questions regarding your rights as a human subject and participant in this study, you may contact the Ryerson University Research Ethics Board for information.

Research Ethics Board
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416-979-5042

Agreement:
Your signature below indicates that you have read the information in this agreement and have had a chance to ask any questions you have about the study. Your signature also indicates that you agree to be in the study and have been told that you can change your mind and withdraw your consent to participate at any time. You have been told that by signing this consent agreement you are not giving up any of your legal rights.
You have been given a copy of this agreement so that you have a record of the investigator's commitments to you.

_____
Name of Participant (please print)

_____ _____
Signature of Participant Date

_____ _____
Signature of Investigator, P. Sniderman Date

APPENDIX 3a: SUGGESTED PROTOCOLS AND RISK MANAGEMENT PROCEDURES FOR STAGE TWO (*Not Approved by Ethics)*

Step One: Initial Request in Survey: *Reads as follows*

PART FIVE: STAGE TWO OF THIS STUDY- ARE YOU INTERESTED?

I am planning a second stage of this study in which an employee and his or her manager actually engage in a twenty minute one-on-one disagreement discussion and then complete a survey, similar to this one, but immediately after the discussion.

This is a research method that has been very successfully used with couples, friends, physicians/patients, and parents/children, but it has never been used to explore manager-employee relationships.

I am attempting to pioneer this method in the workplace, and with you and your manager's participation and support, I would be able to identify best practices that could help improve the outcomes of manager-employee disagreements as well as the quality of their working relationship.

If you are willing to explore this, I will email you an information package about the study for you to give to your manager. Then, if you both agree to proceed, we will meet to discuss the study in more detail and I will give you my confidentiality commitments. Rest assured that the process will be completely confidential and no names or companies will be divulged at any time. Also, you or your manager can opt out at any time if either of you change your mind.

Because of the expected time commitment (approximately 30 minutes for the preliminary meeting, 20 minutes for the actual disagreement discussion, and 30-50 minutes for survey completion and debrief) you and your manager would each receive a $50 gift certificate to thank you for your help. Also, when the results have been summarized and analyzed, I will provide both of you with a brief research report.

If you would be willing to consider participating, or simply would like to find out more about the study, please provide me with **your email address below:**

Email_____

Alternatively, you can contact me by phone at 416-979-5000, ext. 6751

Thank You

Pat

Pat Sniderman, Professor, Organizational Behaviour and Human Resources Management
Ted Rogers School of Business Management, Ryerson University

Step Two: Follow-Up Email and Information Sheet

"Thank you for indicating on your survey that you are willing to consider participating in Stage Two of my study on emotions that arise during disagreement discussions

between managers and employees. The goals of the second stage are 1) to learn more about what happens during manager-employee disagreement discussions in a more immediate way rather than through recall (survey) of a past event and 2) To learn the manager's perspective

I have attached an information sheet for you to give to your manager. (**See Appendix A)** If you both agree to participate I would meet with you and your manager to answer questions and to set up a time for the disagreement discussion followed by a survey.

Step Three: Meeting with Employee and Manager and Consent Form

Step Five: Disagreement Discussion, Survey Completion and Facilitation

At the appointed time, the manager and employee will meet PI at their workplace to identify an area of current disagreement. Procedures, guidelines for this stage have been well documented in "Emotion Elicitation Using Dyadic Interaction Tasks" by Roberts, Tsai and Coan (2007).

Note: If the PI identifies that the area of disagreement has or might involve litigation, she will suggest a different topic or that they not proceed in order to minimize the risk of her having to breach confidentiality.

1. ***Disagreement Discussion*** (20 minutes)

The researcher will ask the dyad to discuss their area of disagreement then she will leave the room to observe through the two-way mirror. If the video option was agreed to, the video will be turned on. The manager and employee will spend 20 minutes discussing their area of disagreement.

2. ***Survey Completion*** (20 minutes)

Immediately after the discussion, the PI returns to the room. While she plans the facilitation session both manager and employee rate:

a) the manager's communication behaviours, b) the extent to which their disagreement discussion was typical, c) their felt emotions and emotion regulation

strategy during the discussion, and d) the degree to which the discussion helped move them towards agreement on the issue. The PI will collect the surveys.

b)

3. ***Debrief and Facilitation*** (20-50 minutes)

PI will facilitate a discussion of the disagreement discussion with two goals in mind: First, to help the dyad move closer to agreement on the topic and second, to provide constructive feedback on the manager's communication behaviours. The PI will also provide participants with a summary paper and references regarding confirming and disconfirming communication, emotions, emotion regulation and relationship quality.

4. ***Follow-Up*** *(Optional)*

If the disagreement discussion raised a great deal of negative emotion in either party, or if the PI identifies that discomfort for the employee was high, and remained unresolved, she will offer a follow-up meeting.

RISK ASSESSMENT

Risk One: Manager punishes employee for expressing disagreement

There is a risk that the employee, who is of lower status than the manager, might be punished in some way by expressing negative views. The protocol has been designed to minimize this risk;

a) By providing for an opt-out at any time,

b) By having the employee control the process and

c) By ensuring transparency at all times. Thus the employee recruits his or her manager, sets up the meetings with the PI, and handles all communications with the PI. Also, no surveys are completed behind the employees back since all data collection occurs in the employee's presence and the data collected from manager and employee are identical.

Risk Two: Feelings of Discomfort

Another potential risk is that both manager and employee might feel uncomfortable discussing areas of disagreement that they have not discussed before. This risk is mitigated in the protocol by the following:

a) Having a structured facilitation session after the discussion and data collection.

b) If the PI identifies that discomfort for the employee was high, and remained unresolved, she will also offer a follow-up meeting and/or the services of the Ryerson University Counseling Centre

Risk Three: Confidentiality

There is a potential risk that manager or employee might be concerned that their behaviour during a disagreement discussion or the data collected might somehow become known to others in their workplace or at large. This risk is eliminated through:

a) The confidentiality commitments made in writing
b) Having the disagreement discussion off-site at Ryerson University
c) The guarantee that no-one, other than the research team will view the data
d) Commitments to anonymize all the data, to keep all the data in locked storage, and to destroy the videotapes after one year

APPENDIX 3b:
INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENT TO GIVE HIS OR HER MANAGER

Dear Manager,

My name is Pat Sniderman and I have been a Professor of Organizational Behaviour and Human Resources Management at Ryerson University since 1985, prior to which I was Director of Organization Development and Recruitment at Manulife Financial.

I am currently researching the emotional impacts of disagreement discussions between managers and their employees. The first stage of the study is an employee survey which is being handed out to 300 Continuing Education students taking courses at Ryerson University. Your employee completed a questionnaire during class and agreed to send this letter to you because I would like to capture what happens during disagreement discussions in real-time and also from the manager's perspective. With this goal in mind, I am wondering if you and your employee would agree to have a twenty minute one-on-one disagreement discussion (on a topic that you both agree to) followed by completion of a survey?

Collecting data in context and based on a *real* relationship (rather than through role plays or hypothetical situations) is a research method that has been very successfully used with couples, friends, physicians/patients, and parents/children, *but it has never been used to explore manager-employee relationships.* I am attempting to pioneer this method in the workplace, and with you and your employee's participation and support, I would be able to identify best practices that could help improve the outcomes of manager-employee disagreements as well as the quality of their working relationship.

If you and your employee are willing to explore this further, we will meet to discuss the study in more detail and I will give you my signed confidentiality commitments. Rest assured that the process will be completely confidential and no names or companies will be divulged at any time. Also, you or your employee can opt out at any time if either of you change your mind.

Because of the expected time commitment (approximately 30 minutes for the preliminary meeting, 20 minutes for the actual disagreement discussion, and 30-50 minutes for survey completion and debrief) you and your employee would each receive a $50 gift certificate to thank you for your help. Also, when the results have been summarized and analyzed, I will provide both of you with a brief research report.

If you would be willing to consider participating, or simply would like to find out more about the study, please contact me by phone at 416-979-5000 extension 6751 or by email at psnider@ryerson.ca

Sincerely,

Pat Sniderman

Pat Sniderman
Professor, Organizational Behaviour and Human Resources Management
Ryerson University
Ted Rogers School of Management

APPENDIX 3c
STAGE TWO CONSENT FORM_01_WITHOUT AUDIO

Dear Participant
Thank you for participating in stage two of the study. Before you give your consent to be a volunteer, it is important that you read the following information and ask as many questions as necessary to be sure you understand what you will be asked to do.
Title: The Emotional Impacts of Disagreement Discussions between Managers and Employees

Investigators:
The principal investigator (PI) is Pat Sniderman, Professor Organizational Behaviour, Ted Rogers School of Management, Ryerson University. She is working with Professor Mark Fenton-O'Creevy and Dr. Rosalind Searle from the Open University Business School in the UK and with Dr. Nina Cole at Ryerson University

Goals and Description of Stage 2 of the Study:
The goal of stage two of the study is to explore real-time employee perceptions of a manager-employee disagreement discussion, based on an actual discussion rather than through recall of a past event. The study involves the following steps:
Step 1: The employee agrees to participate and signs this consent form which includes the PI guarantees
Step 2: The employee invites his or her manager to participate and they set a time to meet with the PI
Step 3: The PI meets with the employee and his or her manager to discuss the study as well as the video option. If the manager agrees to proceed, he or she also signs this consent form. A meeting time is set for the disagreement discussion at Ryerson University.
Step 4: The PI helps the manager and employee identify an area of disagreement that they are both interested in discussing and resolving. They have a 20 minute discussion about the disagreement while the PI observes from behind a two-way mirror. They both complete surveys about the discussion and their emotions after which the PI facilitates a discussion of what took place.

Risks or Discomforts:
If you begin to feel uncomfortable at any time during this process, you may discontinue participation, either temporarily or permanently.

Voluntary Nature of Participation:
Participation in this study is voluntary. Your choice of whether or not to participate will not influence your future relations with Ryerson University.
Benefits of the Study:
Findings from this study have the potential to help organizations better understand the impacts that managerial behaviour have on employees and their well-being and can be used to train managers in how to handle disagreements in constructive ways. If you would like to receive a copy of the study results, please email Pat Sniderman, at psnider@ryerson.ca

Guarantees and Confidentiality

1. No one will have access to your data except for the research team under the direction of Professor Pat Sniderman.
2. All communications concerning the study would go through you and you will control the process
3. All discussions, names, and companies will remain strictly confidential and will be anonymized for publication. To guarantee confidentiality, please do not disclose any information that has involved, or might involve litigation.
4. The discussion and survey data will be aggregated for analysis and presentation so that NO individual will be identifiable.
5. You and your manager can withdraw your participation at ANY time during the process, even after the disagreement discussion has begun.
6. I will not approach or obtain data from your manager at any time other than when you are present, so the process will be completely transparent
7. You and your manager will each receive a $50 gift certificate. If you decide to withdraw during steps 1-3, you will not receive the $50 gift certificate. However, if you choose to withdraw at any time during Step 4, you will still receive the $50 gift.

_____ _____

Signature of Investigator, P. Sniderman Date

Questions about the Study:
If you have questions about the research, you may contact Pat Sniderman 416-979-5000 ext 6751 or psnider@ryerson.ca

If you have questions regarding your rights as a human subject and participant in this study, you may contact the Ryerson University Research Ethics Board for information. Research Ethics Board, c/o Office of the Vice President, Research and Innovation Ryerson University, 350 Victoria Street, Toronto, ON M5B 2K3. Tel: 416-979-5042

Agreement:
Your signature below indicates that you have read the information in this agreement and have had a chance to ask any questions you have about the study. Your signature also indicates that you agree to be in the study and have been told that you can change your mind and withdraw your consent to participate at any time. You have been given a copy of this agreement.
You have been told that by signing this consent agreement you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

_____

Name of Participant (please print)

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

APPENDIX 3d
STAGE TWO CONSENT FORM_02_WITH VIDEO

Dear Participant
Thank you for participating in stage two of the study. Before you give your consent to be a volunteer, it is important that you read the following information and ask as many questions as necessary to be sure you understand what you will be asked to do.

Title: The Emotional Impacts of Disagreement Discussions between Managers and Employees

Investigators:
The principal investigator (PI) is Pat Sniderman, Professor Organizational Behaviour, Ted Rogers School of Management, Ryerson University. She is working with Professor Mark Fenton-O'Creevy and Dr. Rosalind Searle from the Open University Business School in the UK and with Dr. Nina Cole at Ryerson University

Goals and Description of Stage 2 of the Study:
The goal of stage two of the study is to explore real-time employee perceptions of a manager-employee disagreement discussion, based on an actual discussion rather than through recall of a past event. The study involves the following steps:
Step 1: The employee agrees to participate and signs this consent form which includes the PI guarantees
Step 2: The employee invites his or her manager to participate and they set a time to meet with the PI
Step 3: The PI meets with the employee and his or her manager to discuss the study as well as the video option. If the manager agrees to proceed, he or she also signs this consent form. A meeting time is set for the disagreement discussion at Ryerson University.
Step 4: The PI helps the manager and employee identify an area of disagreement that they are both interested in discussing and resolving. They have a 20 minute discussion, about the disagreement while being videotaped and with the PI observing from behind a two-way mirror. They both complete surveys about the discussion and their emotions after which the PI facilitates a discussion of what took place.

Risks or Discomforts:
If you begin to feel uncomfortable at any time during this process, you may discontinue participation, either temporarily or permanently.

Voluntary Nature of Participation:
Participation in this study is voluntary. Your choice of whether or not to participate will not influence your future relations with Ryerson University.

Benefits of the Study:
Findings from this study have the potential to help organizations better understand the impacts that managerial behaviour have on employees and their well-being and can be used to train managers in how to handle disagreements in constructive ways. If you would like to receive a copy of the study results, please email Pat Sniderman at psnider@ryerson.ca

Guarantees and Confidentiality

1. No one will have access to your data except for the research team under the direction of Professor Pat Sniderman.
2. All communications concerning the study would go through you and you will control the process
3. All discussions, names, and companies will remain strictly confidential and will be anonymized for publication. To guarantee confidentiality, please do not disclose any information that has involved, or might involve litigation.
4. The discussion and survey data will be aggregated for analysis and presentation so that NO individual will be identifiable.

5. You and your manager can withdraw your participation at ANY time during the process, even after the disagreement discussion has begun.
6. I will not approach or obtain data from your manager at any time other than when you are present, so the process will be completely transparent
7. Videos a) will only be viewed by PI and research team b) will be kept in locked storage and destroyed after one year c) will be transcribed and number-coded (no names or companies)
8. You and your manager will each receive a $50 gift certificate. If you decide to withdraw during steps 1-3, you will not receive the $50 gift certificate. However, if you choose to withdraw at any time during Step 4, you will still receive the $50 gift.

Signature of Investigator, P. Sniderman _____ Date _____

Questions about the Study:
If you have questions about the research, you may contact Pat Sniderman 416-979-5000 ext 6751 or psnider@ryerson.ca If you have questions regarding your rights as a human subject and participant in this study, you may contact the Ryerson University Research Ethics Board for information.
Research Ethics Board, c/o Office of the Vice President, Research and Innovation
Ryerson University, 350 Victoria Street, Toronto, ON M5B 2K3. Tel: 416-979-5042

Agreement:
Your signature below indicates that you have read the information in this agreement and have had a chance to ask any questions you have about the study. Your signature also indicates that you agree to be in the study and have been told that you can change your mind and withdraw your consent to participate at any time. You have been given a copy of this agreement.
You have been told that by signing this consent agreement you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

Name of Participant (please print) _____

Signature of Participant _____ Date _____

Appendix 4a: October Questionnaire- "Disagreement" Version

INTRODUCTION

The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. It is completely anonymous so please don't write your name on it. Thanks so much for participating.

PART 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Do you currently work full or part-time? **Yes**____ **No**____
   If you answered **"Yes"** please go to question 3. *"Your Manager" refers to your current boss.*
2. If you answered **"No",** have you worked full or part-time within the past three months?
   Yes____ **No**____
   If you answered **"Yes"** please go to question 3 and *complete the survey thinking of your most recent job and manager.* If you answered **"No"** please hand your survey back to the researcher.

   .....
3. On average, how many hours a week do you work? _____
4. How long have you reported to your manager?

Less than 6 months____	6 months to 1 year____	1 to 2 years ____
3 to 4 years ____	5 to 10 years ____	More than 10 years____

5. In the past 4 weeks, approximately how many times did you communicate with your manager either face-to-face or by phone?

More than twice a day ____
About twice a day ____
About once a day ____
About twice a week ____
About once a week ____
Less than once a week ____

Not once ____

6. Do you and your manager work in the same location? **Yes**____ **No**____

7. Your Gender? **Male**____ **Female**____

8. Your Manager's Gender? **Male**____ **Female**____

9. Do you supervise other employees? **Yes** ___ **No**____

10. Your age (in years) _____

11. Your completed education: High School__College__Bachelors Degree__Masters/PhD__

PART 2: YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR MANAGER

12. Please **circle** the response that best reflects your views:

a. **Do you know where you stand with your manager... do you usually know how satisfied your boss is with what you do?**

Rarely	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Fairly Often*	*Very Often*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

b. **How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?**

Not a Bit	*A Little*	*A Fair Amount*	*Quite a Bit*	*A Great Deal*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

c. **How well does your manager recognize your potential?**

Not at All	*A Little*	*Moderately*	*Mostly*	*Fully*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

d. **Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?**

None	*Small*	*Moderate*	*High*	*Very High*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

e. **Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your boss has, what are the chances that he/ she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?**

None	*Small*	*Moderate*	*High*	*Very High*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

f. **I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?**

Strongly Disagree	*Disagree*	*Neutral*	*Agree*	*Strongly Agree*

1	2	3	4	5

g. How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?

Extremely Ineffective	*Worse Than Average*	*Average*	*Better Than Average*	*Extremely Effective*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

PART 3: DISAGREEMENTS WITH YOUR MANAGER

Think about the times you have had disagreements with your manager. What were the disagreements about? Please list all the topics

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Think about these disagreements. We would like to know more about what happened. Please indicate how often your manager engaged in each of the following behaviours:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DURING DISAGREEMENTS WITH MY MANAGER, HE/SHE.....	Never						Always
1. Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being							
2. Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me							
3. Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real							
4. Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations							
5. Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation							
6. Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me							
7. Allowed me to express negative feelings							
8. Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations							
9. Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint							
10. Reserved uninterrupted time with me							
11. Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me							
12. Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses							
13. Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).							
14. Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)							
15. Interrupted me during conversations							
16. Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")							
17. Discounted or explained away my feelings							
18. Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)							
19. Used killer glances (put down looks)							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DURING DISAGREEMENTS WITH MY MANAGER, HE/SHE.....	Never						Always
20. Ignored me while in the same room							
21. Criticized my feelings when I expressed them							
22. Ignored my attempts to express my feelings							
23. Belittled me							
24. Engaged in negative name calling							
25. Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count							

12. To what extent did you experience each of the following **emotions** during (or after) these disagreements with your manager? Please use the following scale:

1 Not at all 2 A little 3 Moderately 4 Quite a Bit 5 A Great Deal

_____**worried**	_____ **enthusiastic**
_____ **angry**	_____**frustrated**
_____**content**	_____ **happy**
_____**depressed**	_____**enjoying something**
_____**disgusted**	_____ **liking for someone or something**
_____ **disappointed**	_____**optimistic**
_____**unhappy**	_____**pleased**
_____**embarrassed**	_____**proud**

13. Now I would like to ask you some questions about **how you control i.e. regulate and manage, your emotions** during disagreements with your manager.

The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your *emotional experience*, or what you feel like inside. The other is your *emotional expression*, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	DURING DISAGREEMENTS WITH MY MANAGER.....	**Strongly Disagree**			**Neutral**			**Strongly Agree**
1	When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) *I change what I am thinking about*							
2	I keep my emotions to myself							
3	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion (such as sadness or anger) *I change what I am thinking about*							
4	When I am feeling *positive* emotions, I am careful not to express them							
5	When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself *think about it* in a way that helps me stay calm							
6	I control my emotions by not expressing them							
7	When I want to feel more *positive* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation							
8	I control my emotions by *changing the way I think* about the situation I'm in							
9	When I am feeling *negative* emotions, I make sure not to express them							
10	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation							

PART 4: YOUR PERSONALITY

14. Below are listed a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you (*in general, not necessarily at work*). Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

Disagree Strongly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree a Little	Agree Moderately	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I see myself as:

1. _____ Critical, quarrelsome.
2. _____ Dependable, self-disciplined.
3. _____ Anxious, easily upset.
4. _____ Sympathetic, warm.
5. _____ Disorganized, careless.
6. _____ Calm, emotionally stable.

15. Please check the box that best represents how often you engage in the following behaviours at your current job.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AT MY CURRENT JOB, I	Never						Always
1. Help others who have been absent.							
2. Willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.							
3. Adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.							
4. Go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AT MY CURRENT JOB, I	Never						Always
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.							
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.							
7. Assist others with their duties.							
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.							
9. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.							
10. Keep up with developments in the organization.							
11. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.							
12. Show pride when representing the organization in public.							
13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.							
14. Express loyalty toward the organization.							
15. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.							
16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.							

16. This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent **you *generally feel this way at work***, that is, how you feel on the average while at work. Please use the following scale:

1 Very slightly or not at all	2 A little	3 Moderately	4 Quite a bit	5 Extremely

_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____distressed	_____alert
_____excited	_____ashamed
_____upset	_____ inspired
_____strong	_____nervous
_____guilty	_____determined
_____scared	_____attentive
_____hostile	_____jittery
_____enthusiastic	_____ active
_____proud	_____afraid

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

Pat Sniderman

Appendix 4b: October Questionnaire: "No Disagreement" Version

TED ROGERS SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT RYERSON UNIVERSITY

OU Business School

INTRODUCTION

The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. It is completely anonymous so please don't write your name on it. Thanks so much for participating.

PART 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Do you currently work full or part-time? **Yes**____ **No**____
2. If you answered **"Yes"** please go to question 3. *"Your Manager" refers to your current boss.*

If you answered **"No",** have you worked full or part-time within the past three months?

Yes____ **No**____

If you answered **"Yes"** please go to question 3 and *complete the survey thinking of your most recent job and manager.* If you answered **"No"** please hand your survey back to the researcher.

.....

3. On average, how many hours a week do you work? _____
4. How long have you reported to your manager?

Less than 6 months____	6 months to 1 year____	1 to 2 years ____

3 to 4 years ____	5 to 10 years ____	More than 10 years____

5. In the past 4 weeks, approximately how many times did you communicate with your manager either face-to-face or by phone?

More than twice a day ____
About twice a day ____
About once a day ____
About twice a week ____
About once a week ____
Less than once a week ____
Not once ____

6. Do you and your manager work in the same location? **Yes**____ **No**____

7. Your Gender? **Male**____ **Female**____

8. Your Manager's Gender? **Male**____ **Female**____

9. Do you supervise other employees? **Yes** ___ **No**____

10. Your age (in years) _____

11. Your completed education: High School____ Bachelors Degree____ Masters/PhD___

PART 2: YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR MANAGER

12.Please **circle** the response that best reflects your views:

a. Do you know where you stand with your manager... do you usually know how satisfied your boss is with what you do?

Rarely	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Fairly Often*	*Very Often*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

b. How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit	*A Little*	*A Fair Amount*	*Quite a Bit*	*A Great Deal*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

c. How well does your manager recognize your potential?

Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

d. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
i.	2	3	4	5

e. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your boss has, what are the chances that he/ she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
i.	2	3	4	5

f. I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

g. How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?

Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective
1	2	3	4	5

PART 3: CONVERSATIONS WITH YOUR MANAGER

13. Think about the times you have had conversations with your manager. What were the conversations about? Please list all the topics

_____

_____

_____

_____

14. Think about these conversations. We would like to know more about what happened. Please indicate how often your manager engaged in each of the following behaviours:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DURING CONVERSATIONS WITH MY MANAGER, HE/SHE.....	Never						Always
1. Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being							
2. Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me							
3. Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real							
4. Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations							
5. Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation							
6. Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me							
7. Allowed me to express negative feelings							
8. Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations							
9. Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint							
10. Reserved uninterrupted time with me							
11. Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me							
12. Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses							
13. Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).							
14. Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)							
15. Interrupted me during conversations							
16. Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")							
17. Discounted or explained away my feelings							
18. Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)							

19. Used killer glances (put down looks)							
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
DURING CONVERSATIONS WITH MYMANAGER, HE/SHE.....	**Never**						**Always**
20. Ignored me while in the same room							
21. Criticized my feelings when I expressed them							
22. Ignored my attempts to express my feelings							
23. Belittled me							
24. Engaged in negative name calling							
25. Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count							

15. To what extent did you experience each of the following **emotions** during (or after) these conversations with your manager? Please use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	**A little**	**Moderately**	**Quite a Bit**	**A Great Deal**

_____**worried**	_____ **enthusiastic**
_____ **angry**	_____**frustrated**
_____**content**	_____ **happy**
_____**depressed**	_____**enjoying something**
_____**disgusted**	_____ **liking for someone or something**
_____ **disappointed**	_____**optimistic**
_____**unhappy**	_____**pleased**
_____**embarrassed**	_____**proud**

16. Now I would like to ask you some questions about **how you control i.e. regulate and manage, your emotions** during conversations with your manager.

The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your *emotional experience*, or what you feel like inside. The other is your *emotional expression*, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways.

For each item, please answer using the following scale:

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	DURING CONVERSATIONS WITH MY MANAGER.....	**Strongly Disagree**			**Neutral**			**Strongly Agree**
1	When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) *I change what I am thinking about*							
2	I keep my emotions to myself							
3	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion (such as sadness or anger) *I change what I am thinking about*							
4	When I am feeling *positive* emotions, I am careful not to express them							
5	When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself *think about it* in a way that helps me stay calm							
6	I control my emotions by not expressing them							
7	When I want to feel more *positive* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation							
8	I control my emotions by *changing the way I think* about the situation I'm in							
9	When I am feeling *negative* emotions, I make sure not to express them							
10	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation							

PART 4: YOUR PERSONALITY

17. Below are listed a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you (*in general, not necessarily at work*). Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

Disagree Strongly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree a Little	Agree Moderately	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I see myself as:

1. _____ Critical, quarrelsome.
2. _____ Dependable, self-disciplined.
3. _____ Anxious, easily upset.
4. _____ Sympathetic, warm.
5. _____ Disorganized, careless.
6. _____ Calm, emotionally stable.

18. Please check the box that best represents how often you engage in the following behaviours at your current job.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AT MY CURRENT JOB, I	Never						Always
1. Help others who have been absent.							
2. Willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.							
3. Adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.							
4. Go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AT MY CURRENT JOB, I	Never						Always
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.							
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.							
7. Assist others with their duties.							
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.							
9. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.							
10. Keep up with developments in the organization.							
11. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.							
12. Show pride when representing the organization in public							
13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.							
14. Express loyalty toward the organization.							
15. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.							
16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.							

19. This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent **you *generally feel this way at work***, that is, how you feel on the average while at work. Please use the following scale:

1 Very slightly or not at all	2 A little	3 Moderately	4 Quite a bit	5 Extremely

_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____distressed	_____alert
_____excited	_____ashamed
_____upset	_____ inspired
_____strong	_____nervous
_____guilty	_____determined
_____scared	_____attentive
_____hostile	_____jittery
_____enthusiastic	_____ active
_____proud	_____afraid

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

Pat Sniderman

Appendix 5: October Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

The Emotional Impacts of Discussions between Managers and Employees

Dear Student, *If you currently hold a full or part time job,* (or have held one within the past three months) you are being asked to participate in this research study. Before you give your consent to be a volunteer, it is important that you read the following information and ask as many questions as necessary to be sure you understand what you will be asked to do.

RESEARCHERS
The principal investigator is Pat Sniderman, Professor Organizational Behaviour, Ted Rogers School of Business Management, Ryerson University. She is working with Dr. Mark Fenton-O'Creevy and Dr. Rosalind Searle from the Open University Business School in the UK and with Dr. Nina Cole at Ryerson University.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of the study is to explore the emotional impacts of discussions and disagreements between managers and employees. Students are being recruited from continuing education classes at Ryerson University

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY:
The survey has four short sections: The first part asks for background information and the second asks you to describe your relationship with your manager. The third part explores what happens when you have disagreements or conversations with your manager and the final part asks you for some information about your personality. The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete

CONFIDENTIALITY
This survey is completely anonymous and the data will be aggregated for analysis and presentation so that no individual survey will be identifiable. In order to guarantee confidentiality, please do not disclose any information that has involved, or might involve litigation.

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS
Some of the questions in this survey ask you about your emotions during disagreements with your manager, possibly bringing back unpleasant memories. If you begin to feel uncomfortable you may discontinue participation, either temporarily or permanently and this will have no implications whatsoever for your course at Ryerson U. Also, if survey completion causes any issues to arise that might involve harm to you or another person you are encouraged to make an appointment at the Ryerson University Centre for Student Counselling and Development at 416-979-5195. There is no fee for this service.

VOLUNTARY NATURE OF PARTICIPATION:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your choice of whether or not to participate will not influence your future relations with Ryerson. You may discontinue participation at any time during questionnaire completion and you may refuse to answer any particular question or stop participation altogether.

BENEFITS OF THE STUDY
Findings from this study have the potential to help organizations better understand the impacts that managerial behaviour have on employees and their well being and can be used to train managers in how to handle conversations and disagreements in constructive ways.

QUESTIONS ABOUT THE STUDY

If you have any questions about the research now, please ask. If you have questions later about the research, or would like a copy of the results you may contact Pat Sniderman at 416-979-5000 ext 6751 or by email at psnider@ryerson.ca

If you have questions regarding your rights as a human subject and participant in this study, you may contact the Ryerson University Research Ethics Board for information at: Office of the Vice President, Research and Innovation, Ryerson University, 350 Victoria Street, Toronto, ON M5B 2K3 or call 416-979-5042

AGREEMENT

Your signature below indicates that you have read the information in this agreement and have had a chance to ask any questions you have about the study. Your signature also indicates that you agree to be in the study and have been told that you can change your mind and withdraw your consent to participate at any time. You have been told that by signing this consent agreement you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

You have been offered a copy of this agreement so that you have a record of the investigator's commitments to you.

_____

Name of Participant (please print)

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

_____ _____

Signature of Investigator, P. Sniderman Date

Appendix 6: Missing Values Treatment Summary

Case#	# MVs	%MVs Overall	Action Taken
March Sample			
143	45	50.6	Deleted
148	30	33.7	Deleted
167	42	47.2	Deleted
191	36	40.4	Deleted
38	30	33.7	Deleted
66	5	5.6 (20% DMC)	Deleted
58	11	12.4 (100% ERQ)	Deleted
114	8	9.0 (56% Negative Felt Emotion)	Deleted
82	4	4.5	Imputed*
196	3	3.4	Imputed*
147	3	3.4	Imputed*
117	2	2.2	Imputed*
165	2	2.2	Imputed*
69	2	2.2	Imputed*
24**	2	5.4	Imputed*
198	1	1.1	Imputed*
173	1	1.1	Imputed*
154	1	1.1	Imputed*
137	1	1.1	Imputed*
177	1	1.1	Imputed*
175	1	1.1	Imputed*
125	1	1.1	Imputed*
122	1	1.1	Imputed*
116	1	1.1	Imputed*
43	1	1.1	Imputed*
87	1	1.1	Imputed*
55	1	1.1	Imputed*
84	1	1.1	Imputed*
18	1	1.1	Imputed*
12**	1	2.7	Imputed*
73**	1	2.7	Imputed*
155**	1	2.7	Imputed*
80**	1	2.7	Imputed*
October Sample			
745	43	51%	Deleted
712	36	42.9%	Deleted
354	27	32.1%	Deleted
316	18	21%	Deleted
458	16	19%	Deleted
700	17	20.2%	Deleted
753	12	14% (100% ERQ)	Deleted
366	8	9.5% (60% ERQ)	Deleted
709	5	6% (20% DMC)	Deleted

326	7	8.3% (100% TIPI)	Imputed*
420	7	8.3% (100% TIPI)	Imputed*
701	6	7.1% (62.5% Positive Felt Emotion)	Imputed*
352	4	4.8%	Imputed*
398**	4	4.0%	Imputed*
713	3	3.6%	Imputed*
380	3	3.6%	Imputed*
304	3	3.6%	Imputed*
441**	3	3.0%	Imputed*
727**	3	3.0%	Imputed*
440	3	3.0%	Imputed*
356	2	2.4%	Imputed*
410	2	2.4%	Imputed*
423	2	2.4%	Imputed*
336**	2	2.0%	Imputed*
771	1	1.2%	Imputed*
766	1	1.2%	Imputed*
746	1	1.2%	Imputed*
725	1	1.2%	Imputed*
724	1	1.2%	Imputed*
454	1	1.2%	Imputed*
748	1	1.2%	Imputed*
429	1	1.2%	Imputed*
711	1	1.2%	Imputed*
389	1	1.2%	Imputed*
383	1	1.2%	Imputed*
324	1	1.2%	Imputed*
433**	1	1.0%	Imputed*
391**	1	1.0%	Imputed*
390**	1	1.0%	Imputed*
348**	1	1.0%	Imputed*
347**	1	1.0%	Imputed*
344**	1	1.0%	Imputed*

**Missing Values Imputation was accomplished using the regression means*
***These cases were from the "No Disagreement" group*

Appendix 7: Sample Characteristics: Full Summary

	Sample 1 MARCH			Sample 2 OCTOBER			Combined Disagreement Sample Total	Combined Disagreement Sample %
	Had Disagreement	No Disagreement	Total	Had Disagreement	No Disagreement	Total	Total	Perccentage
Total	134	81	215	141	53	194	275	
Male employee	51	31	82	68	26	94	119	44
Female employee	82	50	132	72	27	99	154	56
Male manager	61	37	98	92	25	117	153	56
Female manager	72	44	116	49	28	77	121	44
Supervisory	36	15	51	41	12	53	77	29
Non-Supervisory	95	66	161	98	40	138	193	71
Hours Worked:	126			141			267	
1-5		1	1	1	2	3	1	
6-10	8	5	13	9	3	12	17	7
11-15	5	11	16	20	1	21	25	9
16-20	13	12	25	21	7	28	34	13
21-25	9	7	16	12	5	17	21	8
26-30	6	3	9	3	5	8	9	3
31-35	12	7	19	12	5	17	24	9
36 -40	41	30	71	45	18	63	86	32
Over 40	32	5	37	18	6	24	50	19
Length of Time Reporting to Manager								
<6 months	32	42	74	39	17	56	71	26
6 m to 1yr	21	12	33	29	10	39	50	18
1- 4 years	70	24	94	56	20	76	126	46
5-10+ years	10	2	12	17	4	21	27	10
Communication Frequency:								
< once a week	11	5	16	17	5	22	28	12
About 1-2/ week	35	25	60	27	14	41	62	26
About 1-2/ day	14	13	27	39	14	53	27	11
> twice a day	10	4	14	58	20	78	120	51
Co-located	62	34	96	128	49	177	242	89
Not co-located	114	75	189	12	4	16	30	11
Still Reporting to Manager?								
Yes	128	78	206	123	43	169	251	91

No	6	3	9	18	9	27	24	9
	Sample 1 MARCH			Sample 2 OCTOBER			Combined Disagree-ment Sample Total	Combined Disagree-ment Sample %
	Had Disagreement	No Disagree ment	Total	Had Disagreement	No Disagreement	Total	Total	Perccentage
Course Discipline								
HR	134	81		97	47	144	231	84
Accounting	0	0		44	6	50	44	16
Education								NA
High School				81	32	113	81	
College				31	4	35	31	
Bachelors				22	17	39	22	
Masters/PhD				4	0	4	4	
Age in Years								
Under 18				0	2	0	NA	
19-21				36	14	50		
22-30				79	24	103		
31-40				18	9	27		
Over 40				5	4	9		

APPENDIX 8
Chi Square Comparisons between Categorical Variables

	X^2	df	p
EMPLOYEE GENDER: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.00	1	.99
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*.00*	*1*	.95
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*.04*	*1*	*.84*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**2.90**	**1**	**.09**
MANAGER GENDER: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.00	1	.98
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*.53*	*1*	*.02*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*3.31*	*1*	*.07*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**10.43**	**1**	***.00***
HOURS/WEEK OF WORK: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	7.00	3	.07
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*5.33*	*3*	*.15*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*11.7*	*8*	*.16*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**8.99**	**3**	**.03**
TENURE WITH MANAGER: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	19.68	3	.00
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*1.04*	*3*	*.79*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*20.79*	*5*	*.00*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**5.11**	**3**	**.16**
COMMUNICATION F: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.13	3	.77
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*1.33*	*3*	*.72*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*3.23*	*6*	*.77*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**5.73**	**3**	**.12**
COLOCATION: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.95	1	.16
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*.05*	*1*	*.82*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*1.29*	*1*	*.26*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**1.78**	**1**	**.18**
SUPERVISORY: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	2.20	1	.14
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*.78*	*1*	*.38*
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	*3.14*	*1*	*.08*
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	**.13**	**1**	**.71**

APPENDIX 9

T-Test Comparisons between Groups/Samples on Continuous Variables

	Levene's Test		T-Test		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
RELATIONSHIP QUALITY March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.71	.19	-1.82	213	.07
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.57	.21	-2.10	192	.04
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	3.76	.05	-3.22	407	.00
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	.02	.90	.09	273	.93
TRAIT NEGATIVE AFFECT AT WORK- March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	9.26	.00	2.53	213	.01
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.04	.84	.50	192	.62
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	4.38	.04	2.21	407	.03
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	.45	.50	.61	273	.54
TRAIT POSITIVE AFFECT AT WORK- March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.71	.19	-1.82	213	.07
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.40	.24	-.65	192	.52
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.01	.91	-1.76	407	.08
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	10.67	.00	-1.46	273	.15
EMOTIONAL STABILITY- March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.11	.74	- .18	213	.86
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.09	.77	- .42	189	.67
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.01	.92	-.57	404	.57
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	.70	.40	1.28	271	.20
CONSCIENTIOUSNESS- March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	5.31	.02	- .33	213	.74
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	1.86	.18	1.48	189	.14
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.15	.70	.4	404	.62
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	1.60	.21	1.00	271	.32
AGREEABLENESS: March Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.57	.45	-.14	213	.18
October Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.01	.92	-.99	189	.32
Combined Full Sample: Disagreement/No Disagreement	.12	.73	-1.85	404	.07
Combined Disagreement Sample: March/October	1.49	.22	1.02	271	.31
October Disagreement/October No Disagreement					
DISCONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION	17.89	.00	5.16	190	.000
CONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION	5.54	.00	-3.3	190	.000
EMPLOYEE NEGATIVE FELT EMOTION	2.88	.09	5.28	190	.000
EMPLOYEE POSITIVE FELT EMOTION	10.9	.01	-5.9	190	.000
COGNITIVE REAPPRAISAL	1.65	NS	1.73	190	.085
SUPPRESSION	.30	NS	1.83	190	.07

Appendix 10: Disagreement Topics-Combined Disagreement Sample

Disagreement Topic	# Mentions
My Performance	46
My Manager's Behaviour or Attitude	40
Communication	40
Scheduling, Shifts	38
Hours	30
Compensation	29
Time Off (Vacations, sick leave, breaks)	26
Work Methods, Processes	25
Policies, Procedures	24
Responsibilities	24
Priorities	17
Fairness, Favoritism	16
Decision-Making, Problem-Solving	15
Co-Worker Interactions	15
Treatment of Staff	14
Budget	11
Boss' Expectations, Deadlines	11
My Handling of Staff	10
Advancement, Growth	10
Hiring, Firing of Employees	10
Product, Service	10
My empowerment	7
Difference of Opinion	5
My employee's performance	4
Ethics, Values	4
Recognition	4
Customer Complaints	4
Respect at Work	3
My Work Style	3
My Professional Development	3
Equipment, Supplies	3
Other department, Senior manager	3
No Support from Manager	3
Working Conditions	3
Safety	3
Things outside of work, seniority, employee rights, confidentiality, information management, harassment, meetings, training, risk management	1 and 2

Appendix 11: Descriptive Statistics for All Overall Measures & Factors

	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
DISCONFIRMING MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION INDICATOR						
Original 25-Item PCBI	2.90	2.68	1.17	.59	-.27	.95
19-Item DMCI Overall	2.93	2.24	1.23	.58	-.34	.94
Confirming Communication (8 Items)	4.81	5.12	1.39	-.60	-.29	.91
Disconfirming Communication (11 Items)	2.74	2.45	1.30	.70	-.38	.92
Indifferent Communication (4 Items)	2.67	1.75	1.39	.70	-.41	.81
Impervious Communication (4 Items)	2.31	2.50	1.41	1.14	.41	.87
Unclear Communication (3 Items)	3.43	3.33	1.54	.21	-.80	.81
JOB EMOTIONS SCALE						
Positive Emotions	2.39	2.25	1.04	.34	-1.1	.93
Negative Emotions	2.47	2.38	.90	.26	-.81	.87
EMOTION REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE						
Original ERQ: Cognitive Reappraisal 6 Items	4.56	4.67	1.14	-.28	.36	
Revised ERQ: Cognitive Reappraisal 4 Items	4.63	4.75	1.25	-.35	.24	.80
Original ERQ: Suppression: 4 Items	3.71	3.75	1.33	-.06	-.65	.69
RELATIONSHIP QUALITY:LMX-7	3.48	3.57	.83	-.37	-.24	.89
PANAS POSITIVE	3.32	3.5	.83	-.53	-.25	.90
PANAS NEGATIVE	1.67	1.5	.58	1.44	2.41	.84
TIPI: EMOTIONAL STABILITY	5.05	5	1.41	-.51	-.48	.53
Anxious, Easily Upset	5.03	6	1.79	-.63	-.78	N/A
Calm, Emotionally Stable (Recoded)	5.06	5	1.61	-.71	-.32	N/A

Appendix 12: Original *Parent Confirmation Behaviour Indicator: Showing 3 Deleted Items* (Ellis 2002)

Maximally Confirming

~~1. Attended the sports events, music events, or other activities in which I participates~~

2. Made statements that communicated to me that I was a unique, valuable human being

3. Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me

Moderately Confirming

4. Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real (e.g. made statements like "I'm sorry that you're so disappointed, angry etc.")

5. Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations

6. Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation

7. Asked how I felt about ~~school, family issues, punishments etc~~ [my job, the company etc.]

8. Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations

9. Allowed me to express negative feelings

10. Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations

11. Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint

Minimally Confirming

12. Reserved uninterrupted time with me

Minimally Disconfirming

13. Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me

14. Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses

15. Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).

16. Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)

17. Interrupted me during conversations

18. Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")

~~19. Avoided physical contact such as touching, hugging, pats on the back, etc.~~

Moderately Disconfirming

20. Discounted or explained away my feelings

21. Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)

22. Used killer glances (put-down looks).

23. Ignored me while in the same room

24. Criticized my feelings when I expressed them

25. Ignored my attempts to express my feelings

Maximally Disconfirming

26. Belittled me

27. Engaged in negative name calling (labeling).

28. Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count (e.g. "Can't you do anything right?" "Just shut up and keep out of this" or "What do you know about this anyway?"

Appendix 13
Descriptive Statistics for 25-Item PCBI

	Mean	SD	Kurtosis
5-Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation	5.30*	1.57	-.12
4-Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations	5.15	1.68	-.25
6-Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me	5.12	1.68	-.40
7-Allowed me to express negative feelings	4.83	1.78	-.73
8-Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations	4.80	1.67	-.67
2-Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me	4.75	1.79	-.72
9-Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint	4.56	1.88	-.81
3-Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real	4.45	1.78	-.75
1-Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being	4.37	1.92	-.90
10-Reserved uninterrupted time with me	4.36	1.85	-.91
12-Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses	3.84	1.75	-.91
11-Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me	3.50	1.82	-.97
13-Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).	3.30	1.82	-.1.04
15-Interrupted me during conversations	3.18	1.80	-.78
14-Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)	3.14	1.82	-.97
18-Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)	3.00	1.85	-.80
16-Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like, "You're only doing this because...")	2.89	1.89	.-.60
17-Discounted or explained away my feelings	2.82	1.79	-.43
19-Used killer glances (put-down looks).	2.49	1.84	-.08
23-Belittled me	2.20	1.67	.84
21-Criticized my feelings when I expressed them	2.16	1.61	.59
22-Ignored my attempts to express my feelings	2.15	1.54	.72
25-Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count	2.04	1.59	2.00
20-Ignored me while in the same room	2.01	1.44	1.70
24-Engaged in negative name calling	1.45	1.13	9.59
Overall Mean	2.90	1.17	-.27
Valid N =275; **1= Seldom, 7=Always**			

*Items 1-10 were not re coded for this analysis

Appendix 14
Modification Indices (over 10) for 25-Item PCBI
Clustered according to Sieburg 2 Factor, 3 Sub-Factor Model

	M.I.	Par Change
e8-res1	16.97	-.42
e8 - e12	13.60	-.52
e6-e3	10,38	-.30
e5-e3	23.86	-.44
e5 - e6	24.39	.46
e4 - e5	10.67	.32
e2 - e3	39.01	.53
e1 - e3	33.81	.70
e17 – res3	12.64	-.24
e17-e16	29.99	.73
e21 – e22	22.34	.26
e22 - e18	18.30	-.42
e21 - e18	18.30	-.42
e21 - e25	13.75	-.28
e20 - e21	10.44	.25

March Sample, n =134

Appendix 15
Standardized Regression Weights for 25-Item PCBI Clustered around Sieburg's Paradigm

Item #		Impervious	Indifferent	Unclear	Confirming
16*	Ascribed motives to my actions (e.g. made statement like. "You are only doing this because....")*	.67			
17	Discounted or explained away my feelings	.80			
23	Belittled me	.82			
21	Criticized my feelings when I expressed them	.87			
25	Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count	.80			
22*	Ignored my attempts to express my feelings*	.91			
24*	Engaged in negative name calling*	.41			
18	Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)		.71		
19	Used killer glances (put-down looks).		.80		
15	Interrupted me during conversations		.70		
20	Ignored me while in the same room		.76		
13	Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).			.77	
12	Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses			.68	
14	Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)			.73	
11*	Went off on unrelated tangents during conversations with me*			.47	
3*	Made statements that communicated that my feelings were valid and real*				.84
2	Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me				.86
6	Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me				.79
5	Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation				.74
7	Allowed me to express negative feelings				.75
4	Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations				.71
8*	Gave clear, direct responses to me during conversations*				.67
9	Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint				.65
1	Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being				.67
10	Reserved uninterrupted time with me				.65
	n=134				

March Sample, n =134

Appendix 16:
Descriptive Statistics for 19-Item C/DMCI

	Mean	SD	Kurtosis
5-Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation	5.30*	1.57	-.12
4-Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations	5.15	1.68	-.25
6-Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me	5.12	1.68	-.40
7-Allowed me to express negative feelings	4.83	1.78	-.73
2-Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me	4.75	1.79	-.72
9-Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint	4.56	1.88	-.81
1-Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being	4.37	1.92	-.90
10-Reserved uninterrupted time with me	4.36	1.85	-.91
12-Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses	3.84	1.75	-.91
13-Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).	3.30	1.82	-.1.04
15-Interrupted me during conversations	3.18	1.80	-.78
14-Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)	3.14	1.82	-.97
18-Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)	3.00	1.85	-.80
17-Discounted or explained away my feelings	2.82	1.79	-.43
19-Used killer glances (put-down looks).	2.49	1.84	-.08
23-Belittled me	2.20	1.67	.84
21-Criticized my feelings when I expressed them	2.16	1.61	.59
25-Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count	2.04	1.59	2.00
20-Ignored me while in the same room	2.01	1.44	1.70
Overall Mean	2.93	1.23	-.33
Valid N =275; **1= Seldom, 7=Always**			

*Items 1-10 were not re coded for this analysis

Appendix 17

Standardized Regression Weights for 19-Item Confirming/Disconfirming Managerial Communication Indicator (C/DMCI) 3 Disconfirming Sub-Factors, 1 Confirming Factor

Item #		Disconfirming			Confirming
		Impervious	Indifferent	Unclear	
17	Discounted or explained away my feelings	.77			
23	Belittled me	.76			
21	Criticized my feelings when I expressed them	.76			
25	Made statements that communicated that my ideas didn't count	.76			
18	Engaged in monologue (continued on and on with whatever he or she had to say, failing to acknowledge anything I said or tried to interject)		.74		
19	Used killer glances (put-down looks).		.68		
15	Interrupted me during conversations		.73		
20	Ignored me while in the same room		.65		
13	Gave impersonal responses (e.g. loaded with clichés or responses that did not truly respond to me).			.84	
12	Gave ambiguous (unclear, vague) responses			.80	
14	Sent double messages (verbal and nonverbal messages that differed)			.75	
2	Demonstrated that he or she was genuinely listening when I was speaking about issues important to me				.83
6	Gave appropriate facial responses such as smiling or nodding during conversations with me				.80
5	Maintained meaningful eye contact with me when we were engaged in conversation				.80
7	Allowed me to express negative feelings				.78
4	Gave me undivided attention when engaged in private conversations				.79
9	Asked my opinion or solicited my viewpoint				.82
1	Made statements that communicated to me that I was a valuable human being				.79
10	Reserved uninterrupted time with me				.57
	Alpha n=275	**.87**	**.81**	**.81**	**.91**

October Sample, n =141

Appendix 18
Job Emotions Scale (JES)

"To what extent did you experience each of the following emotions during (or after) these disagreements with your manager?"

1 Not at all **2 a little** **3 moderately** **4 quite a bit** **5 a great deal**

_____worried	_____ enthusiastic
_____ Angry	_____frustrated
_____content	_____ happy
_____depressed	_____enjoying something
_____disgusted	_____ liking for someone or something
_____ disappointed	_____optimistic
_____unhappy	_____pleased
_____embarrassed	_____proud

Fisher, C.D. (2000) Mood and Emotions while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 185-202

Appendix 19:
Job Emotions Scale: Item Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
12-Frustrated	3.17	1.34	6-Optimistic	2.57	1.24
10-Disappointed	2.96	1.28	8-Proud	2.55	1.34
9-Angry	2.86	1.40	1-Content	2.55	1.21
11-Unhappy	2.79	1.35	7-Pleased	2.42	1.29
14-Worried	2.46	1.17	2-Enthusiastic	2.38	1.32
13-Disgusted	1.98	1.27	3-Happy	2.25	1.27
15-Depressed	1.81	1.12	4-Enjoying	2.25	1.24
16-Embarrassed	1.72	.98	5-Liking	2.18	1.19
Negative Emotion	2.47	.90	**Positive Emotion**	2.39	1.04

Appendix 20:
Job Emotions Scale Standardized Regression Weights

	n=134		n=141		n =275	
	Positive Felt Emotion (PFE)	Negative Felt Emotion (NFE)	PFE	NFE	PFE	NFE
Enjoying	.87		.85		.86	
Happy	.86		.90		.88	
Enthusiastic	.83		.78		.81	
Pleased	.90		.89		.89	
Proud	.78		.71		.74	
Optimistic	.82		.79		.81	
Content	.74		.54		.64	
Liking	.57		.85		.71	
Frustrated		.69		.76		.73
Angry		.78		.83		.81
Disappointed		.77		.77		.77
Disgusted		.68		.64		.66
Unhappy		.87		.90		.89
Worried		.49		.54		.50
Depressed		.62		.47		.54
Embarrassed		.44		.37		.44

Appendix 21:
Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Emotion regulation will be measured using the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) which is shown below

Reappraisal Factor

1. I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in
2. When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation
3. When I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation
4. When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) I change what I am thinking about
5. When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger) I change what I am thinking about
6. When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm

Suppression Factor

7. I control my emotions by not expressing them
8. When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them
9. I keep my emotions to myself
10. When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them

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Appendix 22:
Gross & John, Factor Analysis, 2003, p. 351

	A	B	C	D
Sample size*	791	336	240	116
Reappraisal Factor				
8 - I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in	.66	.76	.73	.82
10 - When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation	.83	.73	.82	.85
1 - When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) I change what I am thinking about	.83	.77	.80	.84
7 - When I want to feel more positive emotion I change what I am thinking about	.71	.75	.55	.49
3 - When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger) I change what I am thinking about	.68	.76	.62	.67
5 - When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm	.55	.32	.48	.71
Alpha	**.80**	**.77**	**.75**	**.82**
Suppression Factor				
6 - I control my emotions by not expressing them	.83	.78	.85	.89
9 - When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them	.76	.73	.73	.69
2 - I keep my emotions to myself	.81	.77	.84	.87
4 - When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them	.54	.56	.54	.57
Alpha	**.73**	**.68**	**.75**	**.76**
Scale inter-correlation	.06	.01	-.04	-.06

Appendix 23:
ERQ (10 and 8-Item) Descriptive Statistics

		Mean	SD	Median
5	When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself *think about it* in a way that helps me stay calm	4.92	1.58	5.00
7	When I want to feel more *positive* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation	4.61	1.60	5.00
8	I control my emotions by *changing the way I think* about the situation I'm in	4.60	1.56	5.00
3	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion (such as sadness or anger) *I change what I am thinking about*	4.51	1.72	5.00
2	I keep my emotions to myself	4.32	1.88	4.00
1	When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) *I change what I am thinking about*	4.33	1.79	4.00
10	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion, *I change the way I'm thinking* about the situation	4.35	1.58	4.00
9	When I am feeling *negative* emotions, I make sure not to express them	3.88	1.83	4.00
6	I control my emotions by not expressing them	3.89	1.87	4.00
4	When I am feeling *positive* emotions, I am careful not to express them	2.73	1.60	2.00
	Suppression Overall (4 items)	**3.71**	**1.33**	**3.75**
	Cognitive Reappraisal Overall (6 Items)	**4.56**	**1.14**	**4.67**
	Cognitive Reappraisal Overall (4 Items)	**4.63**	**1.25**	**4.75**

N =275

Appendix 24:
ERQ 8-Item Standardized Regression Weights

Item #	Cognitive Reappraisal Factor	6 Items	4 Items
8	I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in	.82	.86
7	When I want to feel more positive emotion I change what I am thinking about	.88	.84
10	When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation	.68	.74
5	When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm	.48	.43
3	When I want to feel less *negative* emotion (such as sadness or anger) I change what I am thinking about	.45	
1	When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy and or amusement) I change what I am thinking about	.39	
	Expressive Suppression Factor		
6	I control my emotions by not expressing them		.79
9	When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them		.64
2	I keep my emotions to myself		.74
4	When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them		.42
	Factor inter-correlation	.29, $p < .01$	.23, $p < .01$

Appendix 25:
LMX Questionnaire

Please circle the response that best reflects your views:

Do you know where you stand with your manager... do you usually know how satisfied your boss is with what you do?

Rarely **Occasionally** **Sometimes** **Fairly Often** **Very Often**

How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit **A Little** **A Fair Amount** **Quite a Bit** **A Great Deal**

How well does your manager recognize your potential?

Not at All **A Little** **Moderately** **Mostly** **Fully**

Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**

Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your boss has, what are the chances that he/ she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?

None **Small** **Moderate** **High** **Very High**

I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Neutral** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?

Extremely Ineffective	**Worse Than Average**	**Average**	**Better Than Average**	**Extremely Effective**

(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)

Appendix 26:
LMX-7: Item Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD
Do you know where you stand with your manager?	3.80	1.10
Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work	3.61	1.02
How well does your manager recognize your potential	3.56	1.17
How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?	3.56	.93
I have enough confidence in my manager that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so	3.56	.91
How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs	3.41	1.10
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your boss has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" at his/her expense	2.90	1.11
LMX Overall (Alpha .89)	3.48	.83

Appendix 27:
Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity Schedule (PANAS)

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way at work, that is, how you feel on the average. Please use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	**a little**	**moderately**	**quite a bit**	**extremely**

_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____distressed	_____alert
_____excited	_____ashamed
_____upset	_____ inspired
_____strong	_____nervous
_____guilty	_____determined
_____scared	_____attentive
_____hostile	_____jittery
_____enthusiastic	_____ active
_____proud	_____afraid

Appendix 28: PANAS Item Descriptive Statistics

PANAS-Positive	Mean	SD	PANAS-Negative	Mean	SD
Active	3.71	1.18	Irritable	2.22	1.15
Determined	3.59	1.13	Distressed	2.13	1.00
Attentive	3.61	1.04	Upset	1.98	1.02
Alert	3.49	1.10	Nervous	1.76	.97
Strong	3.38	1.15	Jittery	1.66	.97
Interested	3.38	1.08	Hostile	1.49	.94
Enthusiastic	3.24	1.15	Scared	1.43	.80
Proud	3.14	1.21	Afraid	1.41	.80
Inspired	2.76	1.26	Guilty	1.26	.64
Excited	2.83	1.27	Ashamed	1.29	.65
Overall	**3.24**	**.936**	**Overall**	**1.67**	**.60**
Alpha-Positive = .90			Alpha-Negative = .84		

Appendix 29: Emotional Stability Item Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD
Anxious, Easily Upset	5.03	1.79
Calm, Emotionally Stable (Recoded)	5.06	1.61
Alpha = .53		

Appendix 30: Regression Analysis Predicting Negative Felt Emotion including all Control variables: Main Effects (Combined Disagreement Sample)

Step 1: Control Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Employee Gender	.09	.08*	.08*
Manager Gender	.00	.04	.05
Contact Time	.11*	.13*	.12*
Direct Interaction Frequency	.01	.02	.01
Co-Location	-.02	-.02	-.01
Supervisory	.04	.02	.02
Emotional Stability	-.06	-.08	-.10
Relationship Quality	-.51***	-.27***	-.17*
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.08	-.04	-.04
Suppression	.11*	.08	.06
Trait PA	.09	.10	.05
Trait NA	.29***	.29***	.23***
Confirming Managerial Communication		-.36***	-.20**
Disconfirming Managerial Communication			.34***
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.44 (.42)	.50 (.48)	.56 (.53)
$R^2\triangle$		.06***	.05***
Degrees of freedom	12, 245	13, 244	14, 243
F	16.21	19.09	21.71
F Change		30.34***	28.12***

DV = **Negative Felt Emotion.** Entries represent standardized regression coefficients. n= 258;

*** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < .05$

Appendix 31: Regression Analysis Predicting Positive Felt Emotion including all Control variables (Combined Disagreement Sample)

Step 1: Control Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Employee Gender	.07	.08	.08
Manager Gender	-.03	-.06	-.06
Contact Time	-.04	-.05	-.04
Direct Interaction Frequency	.06	.05	.06
Co-Location	-.01	-.01	.01
Supervisory	.02	.03	.03
Emotional Stability	-.00	.01	.02
Relationship Quality	.43***	.25**	.21*
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.00	-.03	-.03
Suppression	.06	.08	.09
Trait PA	.28***	.28***	.30***
Trait NA	.09	.09	.12 (.06)
Confirming Managerial Communication		.28***	.21**
Disconfirming Managerial Communication			-.13 (.08)
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.35 (.31)	.38 (.35)	.39 (.35)
$R^2\triangle$		.04***	.01 (.08)
Degrees of freedom	12, 245	13, 244	14, 243
F	10.74	11.54	11.04
F Change		14.18***	3.18

DV = **Positive Felt Emotion.** Entries represent standardized regression coefficients.

n= 258 *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < .05$

Appendix 32: Regression Analysis Predicting Negative Felt Emotion including all Control variables: Main Effects (No Disagreement Sample)

Step 1: Control Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Employee Gender	-.06	-.02	-.02
Manager Gender	.29*	.31*	.27*
Contact Time	-.00	-.00	-.01
Direct Interaction Frequency	.30*	.31*	.27*
Co-Location	.03	-.02	.01
Supervisory	-.21	-.15	-.11
Emotional Stability	-.06	-.05	-.06
Relationship Quality	-.56**	-.28	-.22
Cognitive Reappraisal	.06	.13	.11
Suppression	-.07	-.07	-.09
Trait PA	-.22	-.23	-.18
Trait NA	.11	.12	.08
Confirming Managerial Communication		-.32	-.19
Disconfirming Managerial Communication			.31*
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.54 (.39)	.56 (.40)	.61 (.45)
$R^2\triangle$			
Degrees of freedom	12	13	14
F	3.51**	3.45**	3.78**
F Change		1.81	4.09*

DV = **Negative Felt Emotion.** Entries represent standardized regression coefficients. n= 49;

*** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < .05$

Appendix 33: Regression Analysis Predicting Positive Felt Emotion including all Control variables ("No Disagreement" Sample)

Step 1: Control Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Employee Gender	.16	.09	.09
Manager Gender	-.04	-.07	-.09
Contact Time	-.12	-.13	-.13
Direct Interaction Frequency	-.11	-.13	-.17
Co-Location	.01	.06	.09
Supervisory	.01	-.06	-.03
Emotional Stability	-.08	-.10	-.10
Relationship Quality	.65***	.26	.32
Cognitive Reappraisal	-.04	-.16	-.15
Suppression	-.02	-.01	-.04
Trait PA	.28	.29	.32*
Trait NA	.12	.01	.08
Confirming Managerial Communication		.43	.52*
Disconfirming Managerial Communication			.23
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.61 (.47)	.65 (.51)	.67 (.53)
ΔR^2		.04	.03*
Degrees of freedom	12	13	14
F	4.49	4.75	4.80
F Change		3.72	2.58

DV = **Positive Felt Emotion**. Entries represent standardized regression coefficients.

n= 49 *** $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ * $p < .05$